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College and Research Libraries

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Change of Policy in the Distribution of Printed Cards by the Library of Congress to Depository Libraries

IN VIEW of the projected publication of the Library of Congress printed cards in book form, the library issues this statement to define changes in requirements to be made of libraries receiving its printed cards on deposit.

The Library of Congress will continue to distribute new cards to regular depository libraries whether or not they subscribe to the set in book form.

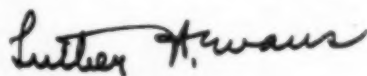
A depository library which subscribes to the catalog of printed cards to be published under the auspices of the Association of Research Libraries may choose one of the following courses of action as regards depository cards distributed August 1, 1942, or later:

- (1) It may file the new cards as a separate catalog.
- (2) It may continue to interfile the new cards with the present depository set.

The Library of Congress will require the regular depository library which subscribes to the set in book form to inform the library as to which of the above methods will be followed.

In the event that the depository library chooses the first of these alternatives, the Library of Congress will entertain a proposal for the use of the present depository cards in the development of a local or regional union catalog, or other suitable bibliographical project. Failing a suitable proposal for local use of the depository set, it should be returned to the Library of Congress, after due notice.

Subscribers to the catalog in book form can establish a working supplement to it by purchasing for \$42 per year the proof sheets of the printed cards cut to card size and punched. The proof slips may be discarded when the supplementary volumes covering them are issued. If printed cards are desired instead of the proof sheets, these can be supplied by the Card Division of the Library of Congress at prices listed in the *Handbook of Card Distribution*.



Acting Librarian of Congress

June 30, 1942

Bibliography and History

The following is a lecture delivered in America by Mr. Esdaile during his visit in 1941.

BIBLIOGRAPHY has been called the grammar of science. If we take the word 'science,' not in its wider and truer sense, but in the sense to which the usage of the English language has limited it, there are many men of science who are but little aware of the part which bibliography can play in illuminating the development of their branch of knowledge. Historical bibliographies of many branches of science have been made. But, just as Shelley thought political history no more than the record of crimes, so the lesser scientific mind regards the history of science as the history of errors. We, therefore, may welcome one feature of the message of a popular scientific educator of today, Professor Lancelot Hogben, who turns a vigorous mind to showing that it is only by keeping constantly in mind the history of invention that mathematics and science can be profitably taught to the young. I am inclined to think—though I may be doing him injustice—that he would class historical bibliography with Greek, Latin, and Platonism or, as he would say, the "curious ideas of a slave-owning Mediterranean culture." Yet, without the historical bibliographer, let alone without Greek thought, the triumphs of invention and also Hogben's admirable account of them would have been impossible.

There is, of course, a simpler, I will not

say a more practical, form of bibliography which is necessary to all scientific workers. They need to know what is being published in their field. They demand that current writings relevant to their work should be rapidly and accessibly registered. Many of these current guides now exist and very necessary they are. But the historian—whether of a science, of an art, of social life, of politics, or of religion—needs a far more elaborate bibliographical craft than is necessary to the convenient record of current writing. Very often, and very desirably, the historian and the historical bibliographer are found to be wearing the same hat; they will understand each other better if they do. When they do, the resulting bibliographical work has a composite character which has been a great temptation to bibliographers—the temptation to be critics as well. It is very alluring. Popular opinion expects of a man who makes lists of books first of all some opinion which will spur them to read or deter them from reading any particular book. That is the popular idea of the bibliographical function.

It is an effort of modesty—not personal modesty, which is generally easy, but professional modesty, which is always difficult—for a bibliographer to realize that his competence does not extend to estimating the value of the contents of a book. It is far from true that a bibliographer who reads the books is lost. Without at least some skimming of the text, the bibliographer who examines a book is, if not totally

blind, at least one-eyed. He will miss facts in the history of the book which may be of the highest importance, and it is on the history of the book that we consult him, not for opinions, but for facts.

Limited to Fact

In thus limiting the functions of the bibliographer to fact and in excluding critical opinion, I am, I know, opposed to two of the bibliographers whom I have most respected as scholars and most regarded as friends: William Osler and Falconer Madan. Each of these distinguished men preached what he practised, denouncing pure bibliography, such as that of Gordon Duff or Proctor, as dusty and bloodless. But each of these men, Osler and Madan, was not merely a bibliographer. He was an expert on the subject matter of the books, old medicine or old Oxford. He had earned the right to criticize, to praise or deride. He appears in a double character. But this is often impossible for a bibliographer who is a librarian, at least in a general library. Yet I would recommend any young librarian to take up in his spare time some subject or some period, not irrelevant to the collections of books in his library and not thoroughly worked by others, and to become a master of it. He will certainly find it worth while to make the bibliography of it *pari passu* with his studies.

If the historical bibliographer has this temptation to go, like the shoemaker of the Roman proverb, beyond his last, he has a converse temptation to stop short of its full scope. I will make the nature of this temptation clear by what in the British House of Commons is called a personal statement. When I entered the British Museum Library staff in 1903, I was put,

like all other recruits, to catalog the new English, or "copyright" books, but just at the moment of my arrival Robert Proctor lost his life in the Tirol. Before leaving London for that fatal last vacation, he had ordered for the library a large consignment of incunabula, and as Dr. Alfred Pollard and Henry Jenner, the museum's best historical bibliographers, were otherwise engaged, these books were languishing uncataloged. By some good fortune Dr. Pollard, to whom the keeper, George Knottesford Fortescue, committed the care of the early printed books, pitched on me to catalog them and gave me my first lessons in the art. When about 1905 Pollard persuaded Fortescue, and Fortescue persuaded the trustees, to embark on a full-dress catalog of the museum's incunabula on the basis of Proctor's *Index*, I was the first to work on it under Pollard's direction and I spent several happy years on the job.

Interest Typographical

The job consisted in the minute examination and the methodical and detailed description of the products of the printing press in its pioneer age. I learned to collate books by watermarks, to observe the developments and replacements of types, the presence or absence of title pages and signatures, and so forth. The interest was in fact typographical.

I am grateful for this discipline which taught me much. But for a number of years my outlook on bibliography was by my own fault sterilized by it. I found the study of typography so fascinating that it became for me an end in itself.

Now it is most natural that printers, and indeed bookmen of all kinds, should wish to know all that can be known about the mysterious origins and the less mysterious

but still often obscure steps in the development and spread of an art which has meant so much to the world. But that, surely, is a most inadequate purpose for any one but a craft-historian. To the generally intelligent person the early history of printing has a wider and vastly more important story to tell. To tell that story it is indeed necessary to have technical knowledge of book production. But every book printed is so far a document of the civilization of its time and place. We can trace differences and changes in intellectual interest, which we infer from the demand, in its turn inferred from the supply, represented by the surviving book.

This is true of any period. But it is peculiarly true of the period in the development of western Europe in which printing was born, a period of fundamental change and expansion. On merely technical grounds Caxton's edition of the *Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye* (Bruges, 1474) must be more interesting than the Doves Bible or the Kelmscott Chaucer, far more so than the finest example of the standardized printing of today. But it is much more than that; it is a bit of the authentic history of our civilization.

I do not mean that because the invention of printing nearly coincided with the Renaissance, therefore, it was occasioned by it. The invention had the purely commercial object of providing cheaply and in quantity an already existing commodity, the book, which was expensive and only to be provided singly by the employment of hard labor, very much as the moving picture did for the stage, and with the same first reaction on the part of amateurs of the old art. Bibles, indulgences, ecclesiastical encyclopedias, canon law, service books of the Church—all books which had

been in active demand for generations past—were what Gutenberg and his associates and followers printed. They printed them just for that reason: there was a certain demand. The Renaissance books were not in demand till later and not at Mainz at all.

Movements of Human Mind

It is just by following that demand through the books that we can learn so much of the movements of the human mind in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Let us think of these movements. Perhaps our own generation may see as great changes as did those, but few others have.

(1) The ancient ideal of western Europe, united under pope and emperor, was giving way. I have heard a distinguished historian describe the Holy Roman Empire in its later stages as the smile without the cat. Before half Europe was violently rent away from the papal allegiance, signs of sickness had appeared. Anyone who reads the little handbooks of casuistry written and printed, especially at Cologne, for the priest in confession, will realize that something was due to happen before long. I will give one example, for which I have unfortunately lost the reference. The case supposed is of a newborn child about to die. The priest arrives to baptise it and finds that the only water is at the bottom of a deep well which has no rope or bucket. As it apparently does not occur to him to lower a can on a string, the problem of bringing child and water together seems to be insoluble. But no, he can throw the child down the well, uttering the formula "Baptizo te in nomine Patris et Filii et Spiritus Sancti." It is objected that this would be murder, and a mortal sin. But no, the priest can run

quickly to confession and be absolved. Ah, but he may drop down dead on the way. I forget the conclusion. But one notices not only that the point of view not consulted is the baby's but that the whole attitude to the question is that of believers in magic.

One could easily multiply instances of the magical and mechanical religious ideas which prevailed in the fifteenth and early sixteenth century and made an upheaval inevitable. The books produced in western Germany betray scarcely a new idea for some decades after 1450, but then the new humanism appears at Leipzig, particularly in the writings of Conrad Celtes, who—to tell the truth—was a pedant, and at Basel, where the new learning appeared in force with Sebastian Brant's *Ship of Fools* and a little later with the scholarly work of Erasmus, in the years when he lived with and acted as corrector of the press for Froben.

Discovery of Western World

(2) My second movement, which I really might have mentioned first, began with the second discovery of the western land in 1492; the first, five centuries earlier, had come from the wrong part of Europe and too soon to have effect; it was stillborn except for a saga. The effect of the *Epistola de Insulis noviter repertis* and of the knowledge of Vasco da Gama's voyage to the East was of course to give an immense stimulus to men's minds and to enlarge their conception of the world. Printing soon appeared not only in the West Indies, but also, a little later, at Goa in the East Indies. And at Lisbon in 1521 there was published a thin folio entitled *Carta das Novas*, describing another discovery, that of Abyssinia, land of ancient

legend, which had been made by the Portuguese in the previous year. The only known copy of this hitherto unrecorded book appeared at a sale in London a very few years ago and is now in the British Museum, which has published a facsimile with translations. The Bay Psalm Book and the great literature of which it was the first harbinger seem remote but are really in the direct descent from these early publications.

(3) The rediscovery of the books of ancient Greece and Rome was also a kind of voyage of discovery, a voyage of discovery into the unknown waters of the past. There is no need to dwell on what is so well known as its first outburst in Italy. But there is much matter for the bibliographer in its spread over western Europe. The first Paris press was started in the university for humanist studies, and after a lapse they took stronghold there, as they did at Basel in the early years of the sixteenth century.

But in England not a single classic was produced for very long. Our early printers have been blamed for this but very unjustly. Why should they print bad texts of the Latin classics when accurate ones were to be had cheap from Venice? We may be grateful to Caxton for the belated medievalism with which he has been charged. We may be glad to have his Chaucer, even though the text is a bad one, above all, his Malory, instead of the poets of ancient Rome, his translation of Jacques Lefèvre's romantic medieval version of "the tale of Troy divine" instead of Homer, the *Eneydos* instead of the *Aeneid*. These were the books men of his day read because they wanted to, not because they had to. Without him we should have known far less about his contemporaries and been no

better off. The same might be said of Wynkyn de Worde. Far less adventurous than his master, Caxton, de Worde gave us numbers of small pieces by contemporary poets which might otherwise have been lost. Pynson, the Norman, who became king's printer, represented a more modern tradition than Caxton and de Worde, and introduced Roman type, but not before 1509, just half a century after its introduction on the Continent; but it cannot be denied that England was medieval till the middle of the sixteenth century. Gordon Duff maintained that till the deaths of de Worde and Pynson in the fifteen-thirties all English books should be treated as incunabula. Run your eye over the Bibliographical Society's *Hand-lists of Books Printed by London Printers, 1501-1556*, and the medieval quality of the titles cannot fail to strike you. The same insular backwardness may be traced in the arts of that period. Holbein, it is true, came and drew and painted his portraits of the court of Henry VIII; the Italian craftsman, Torrigiano (called by Englishmen "Torrison"), made the tomb of Henry VII in Westminster Abbey; Erasmus studied at Cambridge. But though Cambridge scholarship took a step into the modern world, Oxford remained medieval; and, in spite of Holbein and Torrigiano, English sculpture and architecture still kept the Gothic spirit.

(4) In the early sixteenth century the feudal manor was still the texture of the life of western Europe. There was little movement and little money passed. The Church was international, an "imperium in imperio" or rather "in imperiis." So was Jewry international and so were the traders from the Hansa towns. But the economic change which marked our period

came rather from Italy and south Germany. Lombard Street in the City of London preserves the name of the first international bankers, to whom, as to the Jews, sovereigns turned for the specie necessary for wars, which their subject feudal lords had not got to lend or give them. And the Medici, whose armorial shield of the three golden balls still suggests money lending, though of a humbler sort, made Florence the money market of the Western World at the end of the Middle Ages. From Italy the new economic system of mobile finance passed to Augsburg, where the Fuggers, that family of merchant princes, enjoyed a state and a culture almost as high as that of Lorenzo the Magnificent had been a century or more before. From Augsburg finance spread to Antwerp and thence to most of the great towns of western Europe.

Men Intermingled

Men were mixing as never before since the decay of the ancient Roman roads. Though we have no proof that they met, it is not for nothing that both Andreas Dritzehn and Procopius Waldfogel are known to have been at Lucerne at the same time. Both were Bohemian metal workers. Dritzehn was Gutenberg's partner in his experiments toward printing at Strassburg in 1440; Waldfogel was engaged at Avignon in 1444 in some invention which involved letters. Western Europe was not so large in the later Middle Ages as we are inclined to suppose. On the trade routes laymen of many nations met, as ecclesiastics did in the universities. The new money markets were their universities.

For example, at the head of the navigable Rhone stood and stands the city of

Lyons. In the midsixteenth century, when waterways were still the best roads, Lyons was the meeting point of Mediterranean and northern cultures; the book production there of that time, especially the lovely books from the press of Jean de Tournes, shows this double affinity were strongly.

On the other great river of the west, the Rhine, stood four of the chief nodal points in the network of trade routes. Of these Mainz was one, Cologne another. Here were the warehouses where were exchanged goods from the Hanseatic ports in the north, from England in the west, and from Russia in the east. To Cologne Caxton resorted in 1472-73 from that other trading centre, Bruges, and there, in the office of Bartholomaeus Unkel, he learned the new craft of printing. But Cologne was also the home of the Continent's second greatest ecclesiastical university (Paris being of course the greatest) and to the present day it is a centre of Catholicism. The output of the city's many presses was, accordingly, solidly theological and pastoral. It was therefore not the most favorable soil for the new movements. Higher up the river were Basel and Strassburg. Basel, like Lyons, was one of the meeting places of north and south and in the sixteenth century, as we have seen, became a home of the new learning, especially in its moderate or Erasmian form, being out of reach of the Sorbonne. Strassburg was at first almost as theological in its output as Cologne, but before the end of the fifteenth century there arose there a demand for secular literature of the medieval type, rather like that provided in England by Caxton and at Lyons by the first printers, Buyer and Leroy. We may compare the Strassburg editions, of 1477, of the old German class-

ics *Parzifal* and *Titarel* by Wolfram von Eschenbach, with the Westminster editions of the *Canterbury Tales*.

Antwerp

Near the mouth of the river lay Antwerp—"at the wharf." The greatness of the city as a place of trading and of printing came rather late in the fifteenth century. Before that the mart for English wool and Continental goods of all kinds on the North Sea coast of Europe was Bruges. Bruges was the natural channel through which the new art might have been expected to reach England, just as it reached the Scandinavian countries from the Hanseatic port of Lübeck. But the waterways which led from Bruges to the sea silted up, and mechanical dredging was an unborn art. Trade, and with it culture, went to the wharf up the deep estuary of the great river which linked Europe together, for the sea voyage round Spain from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic was exposed to the perils both of the deep and of the Barbary corsairs. Indeed, it is a curious thought that till less than a century and a half ago, had any of us sailed into Algiers it would have been as a prisoner and a slave. Europe was as unable then to combine to suppress the Dey of Algiers as it proved unable in the nineteen-thirties to combine to suppress his spiritual descendant.

Both Bruges and Antwerp were in the dominions of the emperor, till then the widest dominions ever ruled by one man in Europe since the ancient empire. But their greatness was not to be for long. Though they were not cut into till the time of Philip II and though such writers as Cervantes and Lope de Vega and such painters as Velasquez were yet unborn,

the Hapsburg Empire was doomed. American gold was the mortal poison of which that empire was to die—gold and the belief in gold. So wisely does our litany bid us pray to be delivered not only in the hour of death and in the day of judgment but also in the time of our wealth. "The true mines of the Spanish Empire," as a Venetian ambassador of that day truly said, "lay not in America but in the . . . Netherlands." Quoting this, a modern historian observes, "Spain, a corpse bound on the back of the most liberal and progressive community of the age, completed her own ruin by sacking the treasury from which, more than from Potosi, her true wealth had been drawn."¹

Antwerp was cosmopolitan, the centre of the new world of international trade, now made more important by the addition of a new route, that across the Atlantic. It was in the garden of a lodging here that Sir Thomas More, who knew his Europe, made his traveler, Raphael Hythloday, tell the tale of *Utopia*.² It is but natural that Antwerp should be the home of the greatest publisher of the sixteenth century, Christophe Plantin, whose house there, now the Musée Plantin-Moretus, is to me one of the most delightful spots in the world. But in 1576 the Spaniards sacked the city, and intellectual activity moved north to Leyden and Amsterdam, where the great house of Elzevir published for the next century, though the services of the Elzevirs to scholarship cannot be compared with those of Plantin before them or of Fell's Oxford University Press after them.

¹ Tawney, R. H. *Religion and the Rise of Capitalism*. N.Y., Harcourt, 1926, p. 71. A work to which this part of the present paper is much indebted.

² The *Utopia* was not published at Antwerp, as we might have expected, but at the ecclesiastical university town of Louvain; Erasmus managed the publication for More.

Similarly in Venice, Florence, or Paris, the bibliographer of the output of the presses of that troubled and formative time must keep one eye firmly on the surrounding intellectual, economic, and political world and its changes and chances.

Venice

Venice, we know, "held the gorgeous East in fee, . . . And when she took unto herself a mate, she must espouse the everlasting sea." She was also and for that very reason, "the eldest Child of Liberty." In her lagoons she was indifferent to the empire and held the papacy at arm's length. Though Padua and Bologna were not far away, Venice herself had no university. But the city was an intellectual mart. The enormous output of her early presses may be studied in the fifth and most substantial volume of the British Museum's *Catalogue of Books Printed in the XVth Century*. Her greatest printing house, that of the Aldi, was, however, not set up till a quarter of a century after the introduction of the art into the city. Aldus Manutius was perhaps the greatest man who has plied the trade of printing and publishing. He resembles Caxton in that he was an amateur who took up printing in middle life for literary purposes but, possessing a business head, made his hobby pay. But there the resemblance ends. Caxton was a medieval, Aldus a modern. His object was to provide texts of the Greek classics. As a preliminary, he published grammars, and then went on to his real aim, his splendid series of folio texts. The little Latin and Greek pocket editions, by which his name is best known, were more commercial in their inspiration, but their texts are good and they had an immense influence, not only typographical.

The patronage by the Medici of classical studies and printing at Florence is too well known to need comment.

Paris

At Paris we have to watch the censorship. We see the learned press of Jodocus Badius Ascensius. We see the Sorbonne exerting its baleful influence, so that later Rabelais published not at Paris but at Lyons. We see Francis I establishing the Royal Greek Press and protecting the scholar-printers and notably the great dynasty of the Estiennes, or Stephani, against the Sorbonne. Then at his death we see how under the influence of Catherine de Medici the support of the crown was withdrawn, so that Henri Estienne was forced to fly to Geneva. The reform had now, it must be said, lost its moderation; Erasmus had given way to Calvin. We see the wars of religion ruining French book production, especially at Lyons (though not so badly as they ruined the German in the next century), so that it was only under Louis XIII and XIV that it recovered, and even so learning was safest in the Netherlands. The flight of learning northward in the sixteenth century from the realms of the Valois and the Hapsburg has surely a parallel today in its flight westward across the English Channel and the Atlantic.

In all countries there are three bibliographical periods. There is the early period. This has generally been fully worked, if not quite worked out. Then there is the modern period. This is not only vastly more prolific, but its productions are also far better recorded, by current trade and official registers and in the catalogs of national libraries which possess the right of legal deposit. There remains

the third period—the middle period between these two, and this is where most work remains to be done. Bibliographies of single authors abound of course. Paul Lacroix's of Molière, Henri Cordier's of Le Sage, Hugh Macdonald's of Dryden, occur to me among the crowd. And bibliographies of sciences and arts incidentally touch the period. But think of the gaps still left. Why not launch into some phase of this middle period and do for it what Thomason and his catalogers have done for the English Civil War and Commonwealth and what has been done for the French Revolution? In England the Popish Plot is one period. The Darien Scheme has found its bibliographer. I do not think that the South Sea Bubble has, or the Law of Lauriston, or—a large field—the philosophes in France and their followers elsewhere.

National Basis

The national basis is far the easiest to take for historical bibliographical work. The sources invite the bibliographer to take it. But if his outlook is nationally limited he is crippled. Throughout history western European man—on whichever side of the Atlantic—has been part of a single civilization, and no great movement has left any nation untouched. But whatever field he chooses the bibliographer will stultify himself if he does not always remember that the author does not write, the artist does not create, the printer does not print, and the publisher does not publish, *in vacuo*. He must be no dry-as-dust specialist. If he does not take all knowledge to be his province, he must remember that he is a man and that no human activity which surrounds and touches his subject is alien to him and to his enquiry.

By HERBERT A. KELLAR

American Reference Libraries in the Postwar Era

Mr. Kellar, director of the McCormick Historical Association, read this paper at the meeting of the Association of College and Reference Libraries, June 23, 1942.

IN THE MIDST of a world upheaval which affects the life of every individual in the nation it may seem to certain persons a futile procedure to attempt to discern the shape of things to come, but I do not think that this is really so. If the long-range objective of the librarian is to promote availability of knowledge for the good of a continuing civilization, we must keep our feet on the ground, look into the future, and endeavor to ascertain how we may play our part in the days when peace will again descend upon the world.

The American reference library has long constituted one of the chief pillars of culture in our civilization. For the most part the content of these institutions represents the accumulations of time. Often starting with a small nucleus of material, holdings have steadily grown over a period of years to reach their present status. In a few instances, such as Huntington and Duke and Clements, they have sprung like Aphrodite out of the sea, full-grown or almost full-grown, within a comparatively brief space of time. Nearly all of them have come into adequate being within the past half century. Since 1900 housing has consistently limped behind ex-

pansion and although many new and sometimes splendid library buildings have been constructed in this country, particularly in recent years, acquisitions of material have increased so rapidly that a number of the newer structures have little room left for future requirements.

An interesting aspect of the American reference library has been the point of view directing its development. Prior to 1929, with few exceptions, the prevailing laissez-faire philosophy of the general public, confirmed in part by the results of the First World War, animated the activities of librarians and sponsors. Each institution was prone to select the fields in which it was interested without regard to the total picture of library acquisitions and joyously to compete with every other library for anything that it wanted. The possible wisdom of such procedure or the results over a period of time were largely unquestioned. Under these conditions, in the usual American fashion, the race was won by the most active institutions and those with the largest funds available for acquiring additional material.

The economic depression, which began in 1929 and continued well into the nineteen-thirties, caused a rude awakening in society, which was reflected in the library world. Privately endowed institutions soon found the value of their securities lessened and interest rates beginning to

decline. The net result was less income. Public institutions suffered in similar fashion through difficulties in tax collections in municipalities and both inability and unwillingness of state and national legislatures to provide adequate funds for library activities. The situation was made more serious by a large increase of consumer demand upon institutions. The unemployed had leisure for more reading.

Federal Assistance

However, the cloud was not without its silver lining. Federal assistance gradually came to the aid of a harassed society, including its institutions. A number of new libraries were built with government funds, and the National Youth Administration, the Federal Writers Project, and the Historical Records Survey offered clerical and sometimes skilled assistance to librarians. The latter were frequently skeptical of such aid at the outset and embraced the opportunity presented with reluctance but the majority of the profession learned in time to make wise use of white-collar relief labor. As a result many needed activities in individual libraries were carried on that otherwise would have had to cease and others were undertaken on a scale which hitherto had not been contemplated. In addition larger projects such as the American Imprints Inventory, surveys of Federal, state, municipal, and county archives, church records, manuscript collections, and like activities, inaugurated by the Historical Records Survey, proved of direct interest to librarians. Equally important was the further development of union catalogs and bibliographical enterprises, the preparation of guides and indexes to newspaper holdings, and the filming of newspaper files for pur-

poses of preservation and to provide needed space. The discovery that it was possible to make widespread use of white-collar relief labor was a fact of tremendous significance and nowhere was this more important than in the library world. To the vision of the late Robert C. Binkley, who foresaw these things and worked out practical methods of applying them, librarians are everywhere greatly indebted.

Most important in the nineteen-thirties and directly connected with the activities mentioned above, was the gradual shift in point of view from the individualistic attitude of the previous decade to a more social approach with respect to library activities. Public approval and financial support of institutions began to be contingent more and more upon the service they rendered to society. Individualistic interest or ambition as expressed in an institution was not enough to any longer justify reason of being. The trend has been definitely established and is likely to go further.

Effect of War

The outbreak of the Second World War in September 1939 and our own entrance in December 1941 have further affected reference libraries in various ways. Privately endowed institutions, instead of being able to look forward under happier economic conditions to a rise in the present low interest rates upon their securities and to an increased income, are faced with what is apparently a continuing period of prevailing and even lower rates of interest. The present heavy taxation, and there seems no prospect of relief in this direction, is drastically reducing the amount of funds normally available for gifts. Public institutions in submitting

budgets for legislative enactment recently have almost always found them curtailed before they were given final approval. Also staffs are reduced because of entrance of members into the armed forces or undertaking other defense activities, making it difficult to continue current services.

One important phase has been an increasing demand upon libraries in many parts of the country to supply technical information required for research, as well as other types of reading matter, to individuals living in areas where defense projects are being rapidly developed. In a number of institutions so voluminous have been the requests that it has been found impossible to meet current needs in a satisfactory manner. Present facilities are insufficient and funds are not available to expand them. This has led to a renewal of attempts to obtain Federal legislation authorizing the creation of regional depositories. It is quite possible that one result of the emergency will be the establishment of such libraries, furnished with free copies of copyright publications. It is to be hoped, however, that instead of making these regional libraries branches of the Library of Congress, as many of the bills propose, that Congress, if it does act, will select some existing institution in each region, best suited for the purpose, and make it the regional depository.

Technical vs. Humanities Libraries

Also to be noted is the possible danger that the present emphasis upon the practical importance of libraries supplying technical data may lead to legislative support of these institutions at the expense of reference libraries devoted to the humanities. Our culture to be lasting requires balance between the various phases of intellectual

interest and activity. We need to encourage things of the spirit as well as to furnish information about chemical elements.

Signs have not been wanting in the past few years that many librarians have become dissatisfied with our hitherto individualistic methods of developing reference libraries. It grows obvious with time that no one library, no matter how large its resources, can hope to acquire all of the material it should have in a number of fields. To achieve subject completeness, even in a single field, with one possible exception, that of the Surgeon General's Library, has so far proved beyond our capacity. The increased cost of competition, which recently has often had to be met with lowered income, has finally driven the lesson home. One answer is adoption through library cooperation of a planned system of allocation in acquisitions, but before this can be worked out and applied, we must know what materials for research have been assembled in this country and where they are located. As an aid in throwing light upon this last subject various undertakings have been projected and carried out. The compilation, *Resources of Southern Libraries*,¹ afforded valuable information concerning institutions in the South. The *Guide to Library Facilities for National Defense*,² the annual reports on *Notable Materials Added to American Libraries*,³ the publication of the first volume of *Special Library Resources*,⁴ the manuscript, imprint,

¹ Downs, Robert B., ed. *Resources of Southern Libraries; A Survey of Facilities for Research*. Chicago, 1938.

² Cannon, Carl L., ed. *Guide to Library Facilities for National Defense*. Chicago, 1940.

³ Downs, Robert B., ed. *Notable Materials Added to American Libraries, 1938-41*. Reprinted from *Library Quarterly*, 10:157-91, April 1940; 11:257-301, July 1941; 12:175-220, April 1942.

⁴ Vormelker, Rose L., ed. *Special Library Resources*. Vol. I. New York, 1941.

church records, and other surveys of the Historical Records Survey, and the development of union catalogs, to mention only a few, offer information of pertinence. The Conference on Library Specialization, sponsored by the American Library Association Board on Resources of American Libraries,⁵ held at Columbia University in May 1941 and the activities of the Experimental Division of Library Cooperation indicate a clear interest in planned allocation.

Future of Reference Libraries

What is the future of American reference libraries in the postwar period? If the Axis powers should win the answer is relatively simple, elimination of certain libraries, consolidation of others, and possible creation of a few new institutions. Throughout there will be thorough regimentation and subordination of collections and activities in the interests of propaganda for the so-called national state or the Japanese Empire, as the case may be.

Now turn to a more pleasant prospect, an era in which a lasting peace will follow a final victory achieved by the United Nations.

Leadership

Leadership among American reference libraries will then be achieved by those institutions presided over by far-seeing librarians and governing boards who will concentrate holdings in a few selected fields or subfields of knowledge and endeavor to render adequate service for research or general information in their specialties.

⁵ Downs, Robert B., ed. *Library Specialization, Proceedings of an Informal Conference Called by the A.L.A. Board on Resources of American Libraries, May 13-14, 1941*. Chicago, 1941.

Financial Support

At present the future for privately endowed institutions seems uncertain because their securities will continue to bear low interest rates and they will have possible difficulty in acquiring additional funds. Such libraries doubtless will continue to exist and to render valuable service but they may be curtailed in activities and expansion by considerations of this kind. Procuring public funds in some manner or consolidation with public institutions may provide a more practical future for certain of these libraries. Reference libraries connected with universities will possibly be aided by increase of student fees, but advance in this direction is probably limited. In general, if public institutions undertake responsibility for adequate servicing in their field or the area of their activity, whether this be a community, a state, a region, or the nation, they will be aided by governmental funds and should enlarge and expand their facilities to their logical limits.

Library Cooperation

Inasmuch as it is now generally conceded that no reference library can hope to reach its fullest development unaided and alone in the library world, participation in practical library cooperation, wherever possible, would seem to be a fundamental procedure for such institutions in the postwar period. The completion of various library cooperation projects will not only aid the operation of individual institutions but strengthen the library system of the country as a whole so that it will function in a national sense.

White-Collar Relief Labor

Economic conditions in the postwar era

undoubtedly will make relief labor, supported by government funds, again available in large measure. Reference libraries should make definite plans to carry out numerous activities with assistance of this type.

Acquisition, Control, and Mobility of Materials

The completion of the National Union Catalog in the Library of Congress, which at present is about half done, will prove of great service to all reference libraries and now and in the future they should help the expansion of this compilation designed to give the location of all important books held in depositories in this country. Assistance to this project can be rendered in several ways. Copies or duplicates of catalog cards for books processed by each reference library should be forwarded regularly to the National Union Catalog. Duplicates of order lists for Library of Congress catalog cards should be sent to the Union Catalog in order to allow the latter to show locations in various depositories. One or more reference libraries in each state should assume the responsibility for editing and publishing checklists of American imprints for the state based upon the original field notes of the American Imprints Inventory. The original files are now in the custody of the Library of Congress, deposited at the State Historical Society of Wisconsin at Madison. Fifty state checklists will have been published by July 1942 but more than two hundred others are required to exhaust the titles in the national file. In general the entries in the inventory cover all publications up to and including 1876 but in a few instances they go forward to and including 1890.

The proposed reproduction by offset printing of the Depository Catalog of the Library of Congress is an excellent project and these sets will be widely purchased and used. Similarly when the National Union Catalog is completed, it should also be copied and made available in individual institutions throughout the country. Because of the bulk of this compilation it is probable that microfilm or microprint would be better copying mediums than offset printing.

State and Regional Union Catalogs

Reference libraries should also cooperate in the development of existing community, state, and regional union catalogs. In certain instances this will involve abandonment of existing jealousies between institutions and arrival by joint decision among the libraries of an area as to which union catalog to sponsor and by what means. Continued financial support of union catalogs, other than that at the Library of Congress, may require a division of the cost of maintenance among a number of institutions in an area, such as has been recently worked out for the Philadelphia Bibliographical Center and Union Library Catalogue. Where necessary this should be done. If local or other union catalogs are needed but do not exist, by common agreement among institutions they should be created. Reference libraries should assist custodians of local, state, and regional catalogs in sending copies of their holdings to the National Union Catalog for the purpose of adding titles to that compilation.

To create want lists of materials which should be acquired, these libraries should cooperate in setting up projects to examine the records of the American Imprints In-

ventory, American and foreign dealers' and publishers' lists, American and foreign copyright records, the *United States Catalog*, films of foreign catalogs and bibliographies, and subsequently check all of these against union catalogs. Learned societies should appoint committees to obtain from scholars and other research workers lists of printed and manuscript materials in their fields located in foreign countries, which should be secured and placed in depositories in the United States. An example of a list of this type would be the one compiled from data submitted by members of the American Historical Association, subsequently used as the basis of preparing lists of materials to be microfilmed in England, by the Committee on Microcopying Materials for Research of the American Council of Learned Societies. Undertakings of this nature would result in the production of local, state, and regional want lists, which in aggregate would make possible a national program of acquisition of materials needed for research.

Union Lists

Libraries should also make use of the new edition of the *Union List of Serials* for the purpose of compiling want lists of periodicals. On the basis of holdings given in the *Union List*, agreement might be reached with respect to assembling complete runs of important publications in designated localities. The value of the *Union List of Serials* would be increased if the scope of coverage were enlarged in future editions. Special libraries might interest themselves in the preparation of a union list of special periodicals which could serve as a foundation upon which to build want lists of such publications. A union

list of foreign periodicals in this country should be prepared and this in turn could be used to provide want lists of publications desired by institutions. In similar fashion the *Union List of Newspapers* might be employed to produce want lists of newspapers. Libraries in various states should undertake the responsibility of compiling and publishing state lists of newspapers such as *Texas Newspapers 1813-1939*, recently prepared by the San Jacinto Museum of History Association.

The document field is a fruitful one for the assembly of union lists of material in the United States relating to this and to foreign countries. These lists should supplement the partial compilations that are already in existence.

Reference libraries in the postwar period should give attention to the preparation and publication of subject bibliographies. Institutions which possess especially good holdings in certain subfields should undertake such enterprises with a view to the eventual completion of subject coverage. Reproduction of a number of the divisions of the subject catalog of the New York Public Library by some low-cost method of copying, such as microprint, and wide distribution of these records, would prove stimulating to the production of subject bibliographies by American libraries and would provide additional material for want lists. An outstanding example of the possibilities of subject bibliography is the *Bibliography of the History of the Invention of Printing*, showing world locations, compiled by the Illinois Division of the Work Projects Administration under the direction of Douglas C. McMurtrie. Only about 10 per cent of the titles listed can be found in any one library in the United States.

Coordinated Purchasing

Some plan of coordinated purchasing upon a national scale, particularly with relation to the acquiring of foreign books, should be adopted and carried out by reference libraries. The object would be to make certain that at least one copy of infrequently-used books could be found somewhere in this country; those more frequently used would be placed in a number of strategically located centers; and copies of those constantly used would be obtained by all important reference libraries. Plans for the coordinated purchasing of books in regional areas, such as those now under way in the Denver Bibliographical Center and the Union Catalog of the Northwest, should be adopted in other regions when proved of continuing value. Systems of coordinated purchasing in states, such as that of the Oregon state system of higher education, merit study.

Important sources of acquisition are the historical and cultural source materials, both manuscript and printed, located in English depositories now being copied on microfilm and transferred to the Library of Congress, where they will be made available on payment of cost plus a reasonable service charge. This program, which is jointly sponsored by the American Council of Learned Societies and the Library of Congress and financed by the Rockefeller Foundation has been under way since January 1941. Millions of pages of material have been selected for copying and if the program is confined to England only, much new and valuable data will be made available to American institutions and scholars. If and when this program should be extended to cover other countries, the results will be even more worth while.

Duplicate Volumes

The task of redistributing and placing in circulation the large number of duplicate volumes now housed in individual institutions should be considered seriously. This material, which at present is not available in many places where it would be wanted if its existence were known, is frequently a burden to the holding institution. Creation of central agencies in localities, states, regions, and for the country as a whole, which would permit of an approach to this question in a national sense, would prove of great service. An essential first step would be the preparation of duplicate lists by members of the staff of individual libraries or by trained professionals assigned by an agency for the purpose. Subsequently, lists should be circulated in localities, states, and regions until national coverage of institutions had been achieved. Record of disposal of material in a library should be sent by the institution to the appropriate central agency of its area. The possibilities of widespread redistribution by gift, sale, exchange, or loan is suggested in the list of duplicates in the St. Louis Public Library recently compiled by Leonard Balz, of that institution, at the request of the Experimental Division of Library Cooperation. This impressive compilation, comprising approximately eighty thousand volumes and fifteen thousand scores of music, is only one example among many in other institutions.

Reference libraries should adopt a more liberal practice regarding exchange or long-term loan of original records held by them but which do not relate to their particular fields of interest. Included under this head would be rare single pieces, such as the Benjamin Franklin items which

were formerly in the possession of the Minnesota Historical Society, or an extensive collection of material assembled in an institution, which through interruption of sponsorship for one reason or another has become in every sense a "dead collection." Unused in present depositories, data of this kind would be of value if placed in other institutions.

Restriction on Gifts

There is a noticeable trend among reference libraries to exercise definite restriction upon gifts in the interest of the receiving institution. Fully carried out, this would mean that libraries would generally adopt policies of refusing to accept material not in their particular sphere of interest and similarly that they would achieve complete authority with respect to the disposal of duplicates.

In the postwar period interlibrary lending, in all probability, will be carried on to a much greater extent than at the present time as reference libraries more and more accept the principle of servicing certain areas for the particular fields in which they specialize. The practice of charging moderate fees to cover costs of wrapping, express, postage, and insurance is likely to be widely recognized and adopted. Long-term loans will be more frequently made, both for definite and indefinite periods. It is probable that rental fees will be charged for the loan of large bodies of material. Protection against wear and tear upon original items will be assured through widespread use of microfilm and other types of copies for loan purposes.

Acquisition of new materials and mobility of all types of records will be greatly enhanced by use of various copying methods, such as microfilm and microprint.

Libraries in various parts of the country will be better serviced than at present by the extension of the use of existing film laboratories and the creation of others to take care of certain local requirements. A national agency will probably be established to furnish information to libraries concerning the latest copying methods, their application, value, and cost, and to promote standards of copying work.

Warehouses

The importance of warehouses for individual libraries and also for a number of institutions in an area will be more widely appreciated and the idea generally applied. Certain of these warehouses will undoubtedly become centers for bibliographical activities, coordinated purchasing, information, etc., taking over functions that in other areas very possibly will be carried on by union catalog centers.

In the postwar period reference libraries should make definite progress towards planned specialization. Fields of knowledge should be divided and subdivided so that individual institutions will be able to accept responsibility for attempting subject coverage in certain fields which by common agreement are allotted to them. Special collections should be built up, where needed, in areas of the country which do not have them at the present time. Duplication of specialization in certain areas should be lessened through exchange, long-term loans, sales, gifts, or consolidation of records. The distinction between working collections required for research up to the Ph.D. level and those necessary for research above that level should be recognized. Working collections in many institutions of necessity would duplicate each other, while those of

a more special type should be located in appropriate depositories without the necessity of much duplication. The difference between data of primary interest because of rarity of items and records of importance due to content should be made clear. Through planned specialization, utilizing the adoption and carrying out of fair codes of collection and availability of material, institutions should be able to eliminate, to a considerable degree, competition for the same records. In this connection there should be widespread recognition that any institution possessing material for research should make it available for research purposes upon request, under proper restriction. This would involve special attention to the problem of procedure with respect to rare items. Microfilm, microprint, and other methods of copying will be of increasing importance both as a means of making materials available and at the same time protecting the rights of owners and custodians.

Processing

Reference libraries should find their situation improved by the end of the war because of advances in processing, particularly under the new leadership in the Library of Congress. It is suggested that a possible answer to the cataloging problem may be found by increasing the facilities of this division of the Library of Congress so that it will take care of most of the processing needs of American libraries, perhaps allocating on a cooperative basis a moderate amount of specialized work to institutions who would assume the responsibility for preparing information for catalog cards in their fields. All cards, however, should be printed and sold by the Library of Congress. It is further possible, in view

of the varying needs of different types of libraries for detailed information, that several classes of cards might be issued, making it practicable for each library to order in accordance with its requirements. Because of the very considerable saving to processing divisions of individual institutions which might result from the adoption and carrying out of such a plan, it is probable that the price of catalog cards could be raised and also that certain institutions might be able to contribute, out of their savings, to the financial support of such a national, centralized cataloging division. Release of staff in libraries from concern with current materials would permit assignment to processing of older uncataloged items. To meet most of the cataloging needs of American libraries, the processing division would have to produce catalog cards quickly and accurately. This could be facilitated by improving the means whereby the books, or information about them and their authors, could be made available to the processing division in advance of publication release. There should be general agreement among reference libraries as to the types of material which require catalog cards and in how much detail the latter should be made for different purposes. It should be further understood what types of items could be controlled by simple number systems, checklists, guides, and indexes.

Documentary Reproduction

Availability of materials for research in reference libraries would be stimulated by planned programs of reproduction of important bodies of source material. Among requisite needs are a good quality of copying, careful editing, and reasonable cheapness of cost. Examples of large-scale

enterprises are the reproduction of the British Sessional Papers from 1801-1900 now under way in microprint and the English copying program which is transferring to the Library of Congress, by means of microfilm, thousands of pages of source material in English depositories. In order to insure high technical standards and proper quality of product some central agency should be set up, such as the Council on Documentary Reproduction, suggested in the *Memoranda on Library Cooperation*, to serve as an advisory body with regard to copying programs. Also an agency of this kind could act as a clearing house with respect to new devices coming on the market and could institute laboratory experiments to improve techniques.

Bibliography

Reference libraries could render real service by aiding in a better coordination of bibliographical activities. Some central agency, such as a national institute of bibliography, should be created which would act as a clearing house of information and an advisory body. This institute might promote a few national projects such as the compilation of Lincoln and Washington bibliographies and also preparation of subject bibliographies based on the entries in the American Imprints Inventory. Individual institutions should assume the responsibility for assembling lists of existing materials about certain notable Americans. The example set by the University of Virginia Library with regard to Thomas Jefferson should be emulated by other institutions.

Union Catalogs

Planned specialization in the postwar period would be greatly stimulated by the

revision and completion of the union catalog or guide to special collections which now exists in partial form in the Union Catalog Division of the Library of Congress. A necessary preliminary would involve more accurate definitions of the words "collection" and "specialization" than we have at the present time. Reference libraries could assist here by cooperating in assembling the desired information. These libraries should sponsor a union catalog of manuscripts based in the beginning on the more than one hundred guides to collections which have been issued by the Historical Records Survey. Such a catalog might be located in the Manuscript Division of the Library of Congress. Union catalogs of maps, illustrations, and museum objects will eventually be compiled and when completed will be found most useful. Preliminaries of these might be started as soon as a sufficient number of individual libraries have brought their own collections under catalog control.

The above prediction for American reference libraries in the postwar period alludes briefly to certain of the activities in which institutions of that era will undoubtedly engage and, likewise, by indirection offers indication as to what sort of reference libraries they will be. It is obvious that library cooperation enters very largely into this picture. Institutions in this era, in order to acquire and make available materials for research to the greatest degree, must not only be able to operate independently but also more completely in conjunction with each other. In conclusion it is suggested that establishment of a permanent division of library cooperation would be of valuable aid in assisting reference libraries to render the fullest service to society.

By ROBERT W. McEWEN

American College Libraries in the Postwar Era

Mr. McEwen, librarian of Carleton College, read this paper at the meeting of the Association of College and Reference Libraries, June 23, 1942.

PROPHECY concerning the future of any profession or institution is always hazardous. Tracing the history of the college library in America can be done with much greater objectivity and with much greater assurance than suggesting what one thinks will be the trends in a coming generation. And prophecy is especially difficult in times like these.

It happens that I had occasion to make a similar attempt somewhat earlier this spring. A few days preceding that occasion I was sitting in the faculty lounge at Carleton with two colleagues and the conversation turned to the future of college librarianship. It was the seventh successive cloudy morning and my mood, as usual, reflected the weather. I said, "But who knows anything about the future of the liberal arts college library?—or the future of the liberal arts college, for that matter?" The instructor in classics set down his cup of coffee and said, "Who knows anything about the future?" And my second colleague, who is a philosopher, ended the conversation. "Who knows anything?" he inquired.

The problem of prophecy, of course, is to reach some assurance that the future

will not be utterly unlike the present, that, in this case, the problems and programs of college librarianship in the postwar era will have a sufficient continuity with the past through the present to permit our positing some directions with assurance. There are values in our present programs of library service and in our present conceptions of college librarianship which we want to carry forward into the postwar era. We do know, however, that the coming years will be considerably different. For us simply to reaffirm our confidence in our present programs might be only whistling in the dark. Even if it is hazardous and necessarily subjective we need prediction, we need what foresight into the nature of the situation we must all face that may be possible. And it is just as true for the problems of college librarianship as for the broader problems of building the framework of a free world that this is the time to begin, not when the war is over.

We must assume, in our thinking, that America will continue to be free, that Americans will continue to believe in freedom and, therefore, in freedom of inquiry. We can assume that we will want and will see that we have such freedom of inquiry in higher education directed at preparation for the life of free men. We see no lessening of the traditional American faith in education as the basis for

democracy but rather a rapidly growing awareness that the complexity of modern society requires more education than we have had if democracy is to function effectively. There will be colleges and universities in the postwar era.

And there will, therefore, be college and university libraries. The principal thesis of this paper is that, increasingly, there will be *college* and *university libraries* rather than libraries on college and university campuses. This trend may not be hastened as a direct result of the war but it will, in my opinion, be the dominant trend in the postwar era. There will be a sharper definition of the function of print and near-print materials in the program of higher education. The relation of reading to various types of courses will be more fully studied. The result cannot but be a demand for library service planned to meet the reading needs of the college program. We have often heard the statement that the library is the heart of the college. That is good sentiment but not sufficiently specific. The college library must be the workshop of the college—the laboratory of the humanities, to a great extent the laboratory of the social sciences, and an auxiliary agency to the laboratories of the physical and biological scientists. The college library will be increasingly an integral part of the teaching process. Its goals will be the goals of the college. It will have no other purpose.

Handling Technical Problems

This may all sound a bit trite and platitudinous. I wish it were. But the unpleasant facts which Dr. Branscomb brought to our attention in his book published two years ago point in another direction. He properly found the most sig-

nificant characteristic of college and university librarianship during the past forty years in the handling of technical problems created by the phenomenal growth of book collections. That expansion necessarily centered attention on books, not on students, on accessioning and marking and classifying and cataloging and shelving books, not on curricula or teaching methods or reading for honors projects or reading habits.

It was inevitable that there was a tendency to think of a college library as first of all a library. College libraries shared these technical problems of the organization of books with public libraries. The same routines could commonly be used and were. The qualifications of a librarian seemed to be about the same. Even library buildings expressed this point of view. One college library with which I am familiar is housed in a building identical with that of the public library of a Midwestern suburb. The two buildings were built at the same time and were both products of the generosity of the same family.

We have been moving away from these attitudes for some time. But I am convinced that we will move farther and faster in the next generation. And it seems important to call attention to this trend, to predict its furtherance, because there is no little resistance to it. Part of the resistance is sheer inertia. It is always easier to continue the administration of a set of routines inherited from the past, routines which seem to work fairly smoothly, than it is to maintain a continuing analysis of those routines in view of their purposes, with the continuing study and changes that such an analysis requires.

Libraries Are Routine-Bound

On a few occasions when I have been a hospital patient I have had reason to inquire why it was necessary for a patient to be awakened at five-thirty in order that his face be washed. The explanation always was that the task was assigned to the night nurse and that she went off duty at six. The answer never quite satisfied me. If the hospital exists as a healing agency it would seem that the patient's rest would be more important than any particular staff schedule. But after a few years as a college librarian I don't think I can criticize the hospitals for being routine-bound. I know how hard it is to modify routines.

There is also resistance to this trend from those who feel that the college library, as a library, has justifiable objectives and aims and interests of its own. We still have with us the genteel tradition of librarianship which thinks of the librarian as a booklover, one of whose natural tasks is to promote an esoteric interest in early printing, fine presses, first editions, illustrators, bookbinding, and the rest. As a hobby for the librarian, even the college librarian, such interests are probably at least as desirable as chess or stamp collecting. But they will have no more place in college librarianship than any other hobby—except in such institutions as include these interests in the scope of their curricula and look to the librarian for instruction in that field.

The goals of the college library in the postwar era will be the goals of the college. It will have no other purpose. We are already giving lip-service to such statements as these. But in future we're going to have to mean it. The size of the collection of current novels, for example, will

not depend on the librarian's interest in promoting the "general reading" of the student but on the extent to which the college feels that such reading is a legitimate or important part of a student's program. Whether a particular rare book shall be purchased will be determined, not on the basis of its rarity or its bargain price, but on its current importance or potential usefulness in the curriculum. We will decide whether general circulation should be limited to fourteen days or one year, not on the example of current practice in public libraries, but in the light of the size of the student body, the degree of dependence on reserve collections for curricular reading, the location of the library building on campus. Some of us may even circulate bound periodicals to undergraduates! Displays will more frequently relate to current campus studies. And we will even consider the degree of intelligence required for admission to the college in deciding on the amount and kind of cataloging required for our libraries.

All that has been said thus far is that the next generation will see a redefinition of objectives and reorganization of processes in the college library directed at identification with the goals of the college.

Indicated Trends

We can't proceed much farther without another essay at prophecy. Can we foresee the direction of changes in college programs in the postwar world? Certainly not very clearly. Yet three trends may be suggested, which will influence our policy-making in the college libraries.

(1) I believe we can see that there will be less provincialism, fewer local or national boundaries in the interests of the various college courses.

(2) I think we can safely predict that the postwar era will be a period of economy in the colleges, of economy if not of retrenchment. We can expect that expenditures will be even more closely scrutinized than at present and that luxury purchases and luxury services will be fewer.

(3) There is good reason to foresee a continuance of the present trend toward differentiation in the programs of the various institutions of higher learning with a resulting lessening of competition.

The first trend requires relatively little comment. We and our teaching colleagues will see to it that the materials needed for education for world citizenship are secured. Both the necessity of economy and the growing differentiation in college programs will urge on us the simplification of library processes, the elimination of marginal interests and activities, and concentration on the central functions of the particular institution of which the library is an agency.

In the nature of the case, therefore, it is impossible for anyone to draw up specifications for our college libraries in the postwar era. Only after we identify the college can we specify the program.

We may conclude, however, with some general implications of the situation as we foresee it for two aspects of our programs—book collections and library staffs.

Size of Book Collection

We can expect that the size of the book collection will receive less emphasis in the postwar era. The important thing, as the North Central Association already recognizes in its accrediting procedures, is, not how many books there are in a college library, but whether it has the books

needed for the program of the college. The junior college need not have as large a book collection as the four-year college. College libraries will leave to the universities the building of specialized subject field collections for graduate study. The university libraries will look to special reference libraries for collections in certain fields.

Book collections will continue to grow, of course. But the calm assumption of the past generation that in planning a new library building one should assume the doubling of the book collection every twenty years won't fit many institutions in the next twenty years.

In our book selection, the cooperation of a larger number of our teaching colleagues will be secured. And we will do well to trust their judgment above our own in the building of subject field collections even while we watch their selection for evidence of fads and occasional prejudice. It will be necessary, too, for us to look gift horses squarely in the mouth. Cataloging and storage costs for gift collections that don't fit, that aren't needed, will not be as readily justified as in the past.

The predicted trend toward a complete identification of the library program with the instructional program suggests certain directions also for our thinking about library staff problems. We have long talked of the necessity of a sharper definition of professional library service. We will have to do more than talk about it, at least in college librarianship. I think the time will come, is already here in some institutions, when the first qualification for a professional staff position will be a real interest in education—the same kind of interest that leads one to teaching. Col-

leges would not often employ an expert kindergartner to teach in the college. Should we not expect the same discrimination to be employed in selecting professional college library personnel? Of course the college librarian should be interested in the problems of bibliography and classification—but he should see those problems as part of higher education. He should be a person who is deeply interested in students and their studies.

Routine Processes

We are not, in the postwar era, going to be freed from the responsibility for the routine processes which have so largely filled the time of library staffs in the recent past. Books will still have to be marked and classified and cataloged and shelved. The necessity of economy will lighten the burden a bit. But we must lighten it further by recognizing the fact that the carrying out of many of our routines, once they are established, is simply not a professional task.

Some colleges and universities have a practice of expecting every administrative officer to offer one course in a field in which he is trained. The purpose of such a policy is obvious—to keep the administrative officers in direct touch with students' thinking and attitudes, to keep them constantly aware of the principal function of the college. I recommend the equivalent

of that policy as a means toward the kind of library staff which the coming years will require. No professional librarian in a college should be without some direct educational contact with students. This need not always be the formal relationship of teaching a course. It can be done in reference work, if the reference work is correlated with instruction. It can be done in assisting the students in using the catalog, if the catalog is recognized as the college's index to its library holdings.

We have been devoting considerable attention to educating the faculty and students in the resources of our libraries and this is all to the good. But the other side of the picture is equally important—for us as librarians to learn more about the curricular goals and the educational methods of the college.

Trends such as these will, I believe, characterize the American college library in the postwar years. They may appear to limit the freedom of college librarianship, to suggest the acceptance of an instrumental if not subservient function rather than an independent one. I believe they will require just that change. But in that change lies the way to real freedom for college librarianship, freedom through genuine participation in the program of higher education which is our basic function.

By WILLIAM H. CARLSON

Library Planning for the Postwar World

Mr. Carlson, librarian, University of Arizona, read this paper at the meeting of the Junior College Libraries Section, June 25, 1942.

EVERY ENTERPRISE of any consequence must seek its objectives through some kind of a plan, no matter how imperfectly realized or how poorly conceived. It has always been so, but more and more, in the modern world, deliberate, carefully formulated, long-range planning has been receiving increasing attention, as is witnessed by a succession of five-year and other well-publicized planning efforts. It has been characteristic of much of this recent planning that it has had its genesis in social crisis and ferment. Thus in our country the depression brought the National Resources Planning Board as the chief planning agency of our Federal government and, as a nongovernment effort, organization of the National Economic and Social Planning Association, recently reorganized, strengthened, and renamed the National Planning Association. Both of these organizations have made commendable and stimulating contribution to the literature of planning and increasingly and independently men of vision and goodwill are giving their best thought and effort to molding an improved and desirable design for the world of the future.

Much of our planning in America has

been sporadic, haphazard, lacking in integration and a complete over-all view embracing all facets of our national life, cultural, religious, economic. It remained for the war, with the Axis powers springing to the execution of long-nourished and carefully matured plans for world conquest, to bring home to the democracies with terrible urgency the need for a complete, coordinated planning of the war effort. As these lines are written our outstanding leaders and best brains are in conference in Washington, London, Moscow, Melbourne, Chungking, planning increased production and complete integrated military effort and mobilization of every aspect of life for the majority of the world's population. One aspect of this race to catch up with and frustrate the planners of the Axis powers that is perhaps new, and certainly of good omen, is that even in this period of urgency and all-out war effort men are giving detailed attention to the kind of a place the postwar world will be. More and more they are thinking and saying, "If this is the way to get cannon it is also the way to get the good things of life."

It is to the good things of life that the Postwar Planning Committee of the American Library Association hopes to make some constructive contribution. The committee was created by action of the Executive Board of the A.L.A. on June 25,

1941, appointments were made in August, and the first meeting at which all members were present was held at A.L.A. Headquarters, October 16-17. All phases of library activity, the library schools, public libraries, school libraries, and college and university libraries are represented on the personnel of the committee, which also includes a wide geographic distribution.

At the first committee meeting the chairman, Dr. Joeckel, presented a preliminary plan, prepared by himself, for an attack upon the problem of library service in the postwar period. This tentative draft, which in its major points was approved by the committee, indicated the chief subdivisions in the library field for which planning is necessary as: 1. Public libraries, 2. School libraries, 3. Libraries in higher education, 4. Library cooperation, particularly among research libraries. It was agreed unanimously by the committee that the public library subdivision should be given priority of treatment and development.

Preliminary Plan

The projected plan for such treatment provided four stages of development:

1. An inventory of existing library service and resources in all sections of the country by states, counties, and minor civil divisions, indicating areas completely without service and the general level of service in areas now having public libraries.
2. Comparison of existing services with recognized standards in American library service.
3. Detailed study of areas with and without public library service, including special attention to economic ability, educational levels, sparsity or density of population, and existing types of library service units.
4. Formulation of a detailed plan for national public library service based on the

facts brought out by the analysis and study indicated in the first three steps.

It was envisioned that the plan formulated in step four would need to include the following major points:

1. Patterns for organization of library service, including definite recommendations as to the kinds of library units suitable in different regions and areas. This would include special consideration of rural library service, with particular attention to those areas containing one third of the total population of the country, now entirely without public library service, as well as those areas with nominal, though inadequate, service, estimated to contain an additional one third of the entire population.

2. Essential facts regarding support and ability to support library service in various localities and sections of the country.

3. A study of the library personnel situation nationally, including present number of professional and clerical staff members, with a forecast of personnel requirements which would be of special value to governmental agencies and those educational institutions which have assumed responsibility for professional library education.

4. Relationship of the public library to school libraries, especially in rural areas, and the place of the public library in adult education.

5. Study of the present physical plant of public libraries with an accurate estimate of the national needs for library housing and equipment.

6. Intergovernmental and interlibrary relationships, including relations of Federal libraries and their service to state and local libraries, contracts for library service between units of local government, state-local relations, and the role of the state library agency in the planning and organization of library service.

Six-Month Study

It will be recognized at once that a comprehensive analysis and study of this kind will require more time, effort, and

continuous application than any committee can give it, more too than any existing agency of the A.L.A. could devote to it. For this reason the committee projected a modest budget, but with salaries which would attract the best brains in our profession, for a full-time, careful, analytical six-month study of the entire public library situation.

The proposed study and plan was submitted to various foundations and Federal agencies with heartening evidences of interest. While funds for the complete and exhaustive study have not yet been secured, the Federal government has, through its National Resources Planning Board, provided funds for a meeting of minds to consider and restate the present standards for public library service.

These funds made possible a meeting of the committee, held in Chicago, May 7-9, with twenty-three consultants on various phases of public library service and several representatives of the A.L.A. in attendance. The various consultants had in advance been asked to give detailed attention to present standards in specific sections of the public library field and to formulate a restatement of them. These preliminary reformulations were organized and reworked by the committee chairman into a document which served as the basis for discussion and study by the assembled group. Three days of intensive effort and thought were devoted to this document by all the librarians present, with subcommittees considering various phases of library service. The document emerged from this careful, cooperative study considerably altered and constituting, in the opinion of the writer, an excellent statement of the conditions which must be met by localities, states, and the Federal gov-

ernment for adequate and efficient public library service. As they have now been restated by the committee the standards contain much that follows previous statements of standards, but there are some new concepts and elements introduced and perhaps the entire statement is characterized by a comprehensiveness, a freshness of viewpoint, and an urgency and seriousness of purpose not present in previous standards.

Comparison of Standards

Actually the proposed standards, which were given final consideration and approval at the Milwaukee Conference, represent, in the main, the second step proposed by the committee in its first Chicago meeting, with some projection, by inference and direct statement, of the fourth step, the final formulation of a plan. It should be emphasized, however, that basically the work of the committee and its consultants has not yet reached the definitive planning stage. It is still hoped that funds will be found to finance the detailed survey of existing library services and needs, originally projected as the first and essential step in preparing a complete library plan. If such a detailed study can be made, it should serve as the basis for a complete, thorough, and intelligent public library plan for the nation, squarely and firmly based on realities.

College librarians will note, and should be expected to note, that so far the committee has given little attention to those library problems peculiar to colleges and universities. This does not mean that it is believed that these libraries will be of less importance in the postwar world but only that their problems are not as urgent or do not affect as many people as do those of

the public libraries. Ultimately, of course, a complete national library plan will include college and university libraries, the large research libraries, and special libraries in which lie a substantial part of the present and future cultural wealth and strength of our country. It is the intention of our committee to work closely with the National Resources Planning Board and to evolve, while the war races on, a plan for all phases of library service which can be neatly fitted in as a small but important part of the master plan which the board is striving to perfect for the total national life.

Applicable to School and College Libraries

The more comprehensive, intelligent, and capable of realization that our plans for postwar library service can be the less will be the strain and difficulties for librarians and public alike, of the inevitable, difficult, and complex postwar readjustments. Much that emerges from the projected careful study of the public library situation will be applicable to the college and school libraries. With the public library problems well understood and on their way to successful solution, the place of school, college, university, and research libraries can much more readily be integrated into the national library mosaic, a mosaic that everyone will agree should have more unity of organization, more strength of outline, more harmony and balance, than the present situation, with its brilliant highlights, its confused and overlapping sectors, and its great voids.

We must all realize that it is one thing to make a plan, pretty on paper and sound in principle, and quite another thing to translate it into reality. When the war is

won there will be the inevitable psychological letdown. Old doubts, old divisions, old political cleavages, outmoded social and economic customs, and plain ordinary human selfishness and cussedness, now submerged in the grave necessities of the moment, will rise to reassert themselves. This will be a time of challenge, lacking the dramatic compulsions of the war effort, but which will permit no relaxation on the part of our library leadership. It is to be hoped that an adequate, intelligent, and realizable blueprint of the place of libraries and librarianship in the better postwar world we all mean to have will be ready to mitigate the difficulties and point the way to the important part libraries will need to take in that world.

Real Testing Time

In the opinion of the writer it will be the ten or fifteen years following the war that will be the real testing time for America and the United Nations, even more, and this is said advisedly, than the war years. In every major war people have cried out that it must not happen again but it always has and frequently surprisingly soon, as our generation is tragically and cruelly learning. In the past, wars have seemed to strain or exhaust the moral fiber of peoples, with resulting periods of corruptness, laxness, and graft, as indicated by the post-Civil War and First World War periods. If we are to avoid a similar period of wearily drifting on our oars and rapidly losing gains achieved at fantastic human and material costs we will have to be, as a nation and as a profession, both stronger and more intelligent than our forebears have been.

Now we are saying, over and over

again, that we are struggling to preserve our way of life. The present upheaval is so tremendous that we can never return to our old way of life. However, we may now reasonably expect eventual military success which will assure us the opportunity, if we have the will and strength left to grasp it firmly and determinedly, of not having an alien way of life imposed on us by our enemies. In our new, postwar way of life we must strive to retain the best of the old, just as in our restated library standards we retain the best of the old.

It is possible that in the postwar world the function of the library will be visualized in different terms than it has been. One thing that may change, that in fact always changes in periods of grave national crisis, and which may become permanent, is the abandonment of the old professional ideal of strict neutrality and impartiality, of not taking sides or pleading a cause, even that of our own form of government. The library of the hoped-for free world of tomorrow may very definitely and consciously take its place, permanently and not just for the duration of some period of actual crisis and struggle for survival, on the side of democracy and freedom.

Policy Not Paradoxical

Fundamentally, such a policy for libraries in a free world need not be paradoxical. The library can still secure and make available the writings of other philosophies and other ways of life. Now that we stand at the brink of disaster, belatedly and desperately striving to snatch our freedoms back and create a world where all men can continue to enjoy them, many of us may agree that libraries of the future should dynamically, actively,

and continuously strive for a world and a national spirit that will be inhospitable to those philosophies which consciously seek to destroy human liberties. The whole program of library service in such a world can then be directed toward an understanding and appreciation of the free way of life and the enlightenment of a citizenry which will not only live intelligently but will fully appreciate the worth and significance of the freedoms it enjoys.

If such a change does come a very considerable increase in responsibility will be placed on librarians in comparison with the traditional policy and ideal of strict neutrality and impartiality. If in the words of the Librarian of Congress, librarians "must become . . . the affirmative and advocating profession of the attorney for a cause," they must clearly realize the dangers in such a policy. From the positive, zealous pleading of a cause it is only a short step to the negative, zealous, and fanatic suppression of all that seems to be opposed to that cause or any cause which does not seem comfortable and convenient. When and if we reach that stage we will have come to the very thing we are fighting against, a burning of the books, whether we actually burn *Mein Kampf* in the public squares or not.

Reading in Planning Field

It is believed that all librarians will find some reading in the planning field enlightening and encouraging. As a good introduction the volume by Galloway and others, *Planning for America*, published by Holt in 1941, is recommended. This is a book which should be in every college library. For its stimulating visions of what can be in the postwar world, the little Personal Growth Leaflet number 151,

After War Educational Reconstruction, published by the National Education Association, is suggested. Copies of this little statement, costing only one cent each, might be distributed free by college and university libraries. Three encouraging and popular pamphlets by the National Resources Planning Board, which should be read, are *After Defense—What?*, *After the War—Full Employment*, and *Better Cities*. Henry M. Wriston's *Prepare for Peace* is also of value because of the common-sense and realistic way in which it faces the political, economic, and human difficulties that will rise to plague the United Nations once the compelling bonds of making war on a common enemy fall away.

That the reconstruction period, some writers to the contrary, will be difficult in the extreme, seems inescapable. There is some ground for believing, however, that we may be wiser and luckier than men have yet been. Included in this evidence is the detailed attention people in all walks of life are giving to the kind of a place the world will be when men again fly on errands of goodwill instead of hate and misery. If we, as librarians, have fortitude, courage, and wisdom we can play an important part in making the world, through enlightenment, a really better place.

Anyone reading in the literature of planning will be struck by the recurring emphasis, on the part of educators, economists, industrialists, and journalists, for the need of a moral and spiritual resurgence in the postwar world, often voiced with almost Messianic fervor. The frequency and apparent sincerity with which this thought is voiced indicates that it may be more than the customary human weakness of seeking aid and comfort in a period of danger from a higher power. The writer believes that here lies the nub and the best promise for an improved world after Hitler and Hirohito have been put in their places. As an excellent example of this stirring call for a moral rebirth, it seems fitting to conclude this brief paper with the following statement by President Levering Tyson of Muhlenberg College in an address to his student body last fall.

We need a moral and spiritual crusade to bring back sanity once more, fundamental honesty in our dealings with one another, right and justice in our private and public life, humility and gentleness—and gentlemanliness—in our behavior, truth and softness in our speech, clarity of eye and purpose, decency in our literature, the abandonment of brutish manners, simplicity of existence, the dignity of man made in the image of his Master. We need desperately to be afraid of that cowardice which induces a failure to recognize the real issue between just plain right and just ordinary wrong.

Self-Evaluation; or, How Good Is My Library?

Mr. Carnovsky is associate professor, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago. This paper is based upon an informal talk before the Junior College Libraries Section of the Association of College and Reference Libraries, December 30, 1941.

COLLEGES have conventionally been evaluated in terms of certain static elements: the amount of income, the number of Ph.D.'s on the staff, the number of books in the library, etc. However, within more recent years there has been evident a tendency to judge a college primarily in terms of its ability to accomplish its designated goals. The particular kind of education it undertakes to provide and its methods of providing it are basic considerations rather than the units of the program seen in isolation from the educational achievement. Only as these elements or units can be shown to bear a significant relationship to the nature and quality of the educational product are they important in an assessment of the institution.

In the light of this general principle it is clear that a college library is good or not in the degree to which it is equipped to aid in achieving the aims of the college. The ownership of so many books and periodicals, the spending of so much money, the employment of so many persons to help administer the library—none of these bears

directly on the central question of the relation of a library to its college. Nevertheless, these and other factors do represent the more tangible elements in library performance, either directly or in a contributory sense; therefore they are proper approaches to the basic question, How good is my library?

Six Factors in Evaluation

Accrediting agencies, regional and state, generally recognize six factors in attempting to evaluate a junior college library, and they are all worth considering in evaluating the college library as well. These factors are: books, periodicals, staff, physical structure and equipment, finances or expenditures, and library use. Some of these are more important than others and some are based on others. Demonstrated weakness in some does not necessarily mean a poor library but weakness in all or most of them should certainly make one suspicious that the library is falling short of its obligation to the educational program. Evaluation in terms of these six factors can only indicate elements of strength or weakness but even this much is worth doing as a first step in planning for such improvements as may be feasible. The six elements which in sum go far toward defining the junior college and college library may now be considered.

Books

Many of the accrediting agencies are quite arbitrary in defining the book content of the junior college. Kansas says there should be at least one thousand books, Tennessee specifies a minimum of eight thousand, and there are numerous variations in between.¹ The standards adopted in 1932 by the Advisory Group on College Libraries of the Carnegie Corporation do not mention a definite number of books at all; Miss McCrum in her *Estimate of Standards for a College Library* cites figures ranging from 35,000 to 150,000. The plain fact is that quantity as such is not a good measure of a library's quality. All that may be said is that the more books a library has, the better the chances that it will have the books it needs. The current trend in accreditation is to forego the quantitative criterion altogether, substituting the sensible, if vague, prescription that the collection be "adequate" or "useful" or "carefully selected." Such criteria are all intensely personal; they derive their meaning only in answer to an "in terms of." Thus a book collection is "useful" or "adequate" in terms of the demands imposed by the curriculum and teaching method of the particular college.

Since this is so, the college librarian wishing to ascertain how good his book collections are should consider them primarily in terms of the general educational and curricular program of his institution, and in general the best judges are the members of the faculty. No one member should be expected or entrusted to pass judgment on the collection as a whole, but each one is in a logically better position to

know something about the adequacy and quality of the library's collection in his specific field. In order to have an objective and workable basis for arriving at a decision, the following procedure has been used in some surveys, notably in the study of the Mount Holyoke College Library.²

Available Book Lists

There are now available several comprehensive book lists compiled with the general aim of providing a buying list for college and junior college libraries. The Shaw and Mohrhardt lists are the best known and they are especially useful because they are arranged to conform to the broad subject divisions into which the curricular organization normally falls. It should be remembered that these lists are essentially suggestive, and not prescriptive, buying lists; the titles included are not "musts" for any library and therefore the arbitrary use of these lists as evaluating instruments is to be questioned. But this is not to deny their usefulness in undertaking an evaluation. Either list, or preferably a combination of both, together with several additional lists, should be checked against the catalog of the library to show which of the listed titles are actually held. A faculty member should then be given the list pertaining to his subject specialization and he should be asked to consider the titles listed but not held by the library. He should judge each title for its value to his particular department and he might well indicate those "highly important," others "less important but desirable," the remainder to be left unmarked. It is to be hoped that his judgment will be influenced by the actual

¹ Junior college library standards cited throughout this paper are taken from the chart "Accreditation Requirements for Junior Colleges," which is based upon Eells, W. C. *American Junior Colleges*. American Council on Education, 1940.

² Ludington, Flora B. "Evaluating the Adequacy of the Book Collection." *College and Research Libraries* 2:305-13, Sept. 1940. See also McCrum, *op. cit.*, 124-27.

holdings as well as gaps but even if he does no more than indicate the relative importance for his department of the listed titles he will have made available to the librarian a potential buying list arranged in a rough scheme of priorities. By-products of this procedure will at once occur to the librarian; for example, the faculty members will become acquainted with actual holdings and their attention will be called to titles once remembered but since forgotten; however, the principal consideration is that the procedure will serve as a basis for developing the collection with relevance to the curriculum of the college and the methods by which the content is presented.

Use of Lists

A few cautions should be noted with respect to the use of lists. As every librarian knows, book lists and bibliographies lose their currency within a very short time. This is particularly important because of the speed with which a more recent publication is substituted for an earlier book on the same subject. The recent book may not be better, but if the faculty member prefers it he should have an opportunity to indicate that preference in checking the list. In other words, the use of Shaw or Mohrhardt (or both) should be supplemented by lists or titles published subsequent to the issue of those valuable aids. Secondly, the lists should be used by sections and those sections not represented in the curriculum should be largely ignored. A library which contains few of the Shaw listings in *astronomy* is not unduly handicapped if astronomy is not included in the curriculum.³

³ I am here considering one aspect of the book collection only: its function as supplementing the college curriculum, by far its most important. This, of course, is not to say that the book collection should not have books in astronomy or that it should be limited only to the curricular requirements.

In the third place, a standard list may represent inadequately certain aspects of the curriculum which are highly important in one institution and altogether ignored in others. This is likely to be particularly true in the case of institutions supported by religious groups. A Catholic institution, for example, cannot be evaluated fairly by the Shaw list, because its unique characteristic is altogether ignored by this list. In short, the list, or the section of the list, which is used must be relevant to the specific nature of the curriculum.

Finally, checking any list against library contents indicates lacks much better than it does actual holdings. Holdings are revealed only in so far as they also appear on the checklist. The checklist permits one to identify titles not held but it is possible that the library possesses other titles quite as good or even better. All of these qualifications are serious but they are not serious enough to militate against the essential soundness of the self-appraisal method suggested. No evaluation can be reduced to a set of rigid rules and procedures and the intelligence and judgment of the librarian should at all times be invoked to guard against a course which may inadequately take into account the shortcomings in the procedure itself.

Periodicals

As with book collections, so with periodicals one finds little agreement on the number to which a junior college library should subscribe. Minnesota advocates "two or three representing scientific or research activity" in each subject field; Tennessee requires "at least seventy-five appropriate to academic, cultural, and professional needs of the students." Miss McCrum reported wide variations among

the college libraries; the average numbers of periodicals received in the small, medium-size, and large colleges were, respectively, 370, 650, and "well over 1000." Clearly, the major consideration must be the relevance of the periodical collection to the aims of the curriculum and therefore essentially the same technique for appraising the book collection may be applied to the periodical collection. For periodicals the task is of course much simpler, because the possibilities are soon exhausted. In any subject field the number of periodicals extant is definitely limited. If the titles suggested for any given field in, say, the Shaw and Mohrhardt lists and in the Lyle-Trumper list be combined, it is probable that the list will be quite satisfactory for the use intended. This list may then be checked by the librarian to indicate titles currently received and subsequently by the faculty member to suggest periodicals to which the library should subscribe, as well as to pass judgment on the merit of the subscription list within his field of specialization. It is assumed that this checking will be done, as with the checking of the book lists, with the particular needs of the curriculum in mind.

Staff

The requirement most frequently specified for a library staff is the common sense one that it be "competent." Along with this, however, one finds the conventional transition from *competence* as a desirable end in itself to *professional training*, which can be nothing more than a means to that end. In a word, wherever "professional training" is specified, there is the tacit assumption that it is this which makes for competence.

There are in fact two assumptions in-

involved in the expectation that training and competence are causally related, assumptions which no analyst of a staff can avoid. The first is that the possession of professional training is sufficient to make for competence; given professional training, competence will follow. Is this true? The second is that *unless* one has had professional training one cannot be competent in the operation of the college library. Is this true? Merely to state the assumptions in this way is to imply that the answers must always be conditional. Every librarian knows that professional training is no categorical guarantee of competence and illustrations are abundant which testify to thorough competence in spite of the absence of professional training. This is not the place to analyze why this is so, nor its implications, beyond pointing out that in the last analysis the correct answer must be given in terms of the end-product rather than in terms of an assumed means to the achievement of that end. This means simply that a staff, or the individual members of a staff, are good or not to the extent that they do their specific jobs satisfactorily. It is no virtue in a staff member to be conversant with three or four foreign languages if his job requires nothing more than competence in his native tongue. Similarly, neither highly specialized bibliographical competence nor knowledge of the most advanced principles of library administration is relevant to the performance of routine library operations. It may perhaps be deplored that such abilities are not taken advantage of but this is beside the point. The proper measure of an individual's competence is the skill with which he performs his daily work. His other abilities are important only if they contribute to his work.

Evaluating a Staff

So the problem of evaluating a staff is at once perhaps the most difficult and among the simplest in determining its contribution to library quality. Most difficult in the sense that the evaluation must be based on the nature of the job and this is frequently difficult to comprehend or to analyze in the sense of preparing a catalog of activities; most simple, in that the actual daily performance of the individual is clearly evident and ability as well as its opposite is clearly established. Indeed, no one can so well know how competent a staff is as the members themselves.

One further point. Unless the individual is considered specifically in relation to his job, there is the danger that he may be unduly praised or undeservedly condemned because of certain factors which are altogether beyond his control. A library with an excellent book collection and a large staff may extend excellent service simply because it does not suffer under financial handicaps and indeed possibly because it has so much money available that inefficiencies (unless they be too glaring) do not show up. It is relatively easy to be a "good" librarian when there is plenty of money for books and staff. On the other hand, a librarian may be unjustly blamed because a pinched library budget militates against adequate book stock and personnel, thus resulting in unsatisfactory service. Here certain praiseworthy qualities in a librarian may be ignored because of unavoidable general inefficiency. In neither case is the librarian's true quality revealed. Although finance has been selected for illustration, others may be substituted: faculty interest in developing the library and faculty stimulation of student use, and factors of a predominantly local character.

Physical Structure and Equipment

When the accrediting agencies set up standards for the junior college library building they employ such terminology as "sufficient space;" "facilities to make educational progress effective;" "well-lighted, fireproof;" "adequately housed." The standards adopted by the Advisory Group on College Libraries included similar factors; the building should be designed for expansion, it should have sufficient space for storage, carrels in the stacks, etc. All of this is good common sense, though the factors named are frequently so vague that a subjective estimate is about the most one may expect. Even the provisions for rating college buildings now being formulated by a committee of the A.L.A. mention such common sense factors as a functionally central location, provision for expansion, adequate physical facilities, and efficient arrangement of working spaces, and leave their rating to the personal judgment of the librarian.

But just as handsome buildings and a nicely landscaped campus bear little relation to the quality of an educational institution, so the niceties of physical structure and equipment of a library have little to do with its essential excellence. A modern library building will not atone for a weak book collection and an outmoded building may dim but it will hardly eclipse the educational utility of a strong collection and competent staff. This is not to imply, of course, that a satisfactory building is irrelevant to the ability of a library to perform its functions well; it is merely to underscore the obvious fact that physical structure as such is a matter of secondary importance and should therefore not be given undue weight in any appraisal of library quality.

Library Use

Public library standards usually specify a circulation of so many books per capita of population served or registered but junior college standards disregard a precise quantitative prescription altogether. Instead, the requirement if given simply asks that evidence of library use be shown or that a record of library use be kept, or, most vague of all, that use by faculty and students be "considered."

Paradoxically, though use of the library is perhaps the most important single aspect of a college library's operation, responsibility for that use is not the library's except in a relatively minor degree. Whether the library is much or little used will be found to be most closely related to the nature and requirements of the curriculum, to the method of teaching adopted by the faculty, and to the degree to which the faculty stimulate or encourage reading. Specifically "library" factors will operate in only a secondary capacity to affect the extent of library use and two of these have already been considered. Thus a poor book stock may militate against wide use and an inconvenient location will certainly not encourage it; in addition, onerous regulations, regardless of their necessity, may serve to diminish student use of the library.

In short, consideration of use as such will throw little light on library quality; even a "good" library may be but little used. However, where the library is used to too limited an extent the librarian may question whether such limitation is due to factors over which he has some control. In short, much or little use will not in itself indicate library quality but evidence of use should be related to underlying causes. Whether or not anything can be done or need be done to increase use where

it appears to be unduly small will depend on the nature of these causes. Obviously many of them will be beyond the librarian's influence but should they be in any respect related to the management of the library itself, he should certainly be alert to effect such changes as are feasible.

Library Finance

The amount of money a library receives will certainly affect the number of books purchased and the personnel employed. Liberal support will not guarantee a good library but a niggardly budget will go far to prevent one. Nevertheless, the library's budget is not a good index to a library's quality; since it is always a means to a good library and never an end in itself, it can never answer whether a library is good or not, though it will obviously have much to say concerning the reasons for its quality or mediocrity.

There are no "oughts" about college library finance; no one can say how much a library *ought* to receive, any more than one can say how much faculty salaries should be or what the buildings and grounds department is entitled to. How much a library will actually get depends on numerous local factors; two in particular will probably determine the amount to a greater extent than any factor externally applied. These are, first, the total income of the institution, and second, the sum total of demands made upon it. Just as in public affairs "the claim of public libraries for public support is only relative to the valid claims of other functional agencies"⁴ so in academic institutions the library's claim for a part of the budget is relative to the demands of other parts of

⁴ Leland, Simeon E. "Observations on Financing Libraries." *The Library Quarterly* 2:348, Oct. 1932.

the program. It is unrealistic to say the library *should* receive a definite amount without considering how much is available altogether or how much the teaching and administrative program is entitled to receive.

Not Enough Money

At the same time it is not unreasonable to hold that unless a library receives enough to enable it to do its job, the job probably won't be done or at best it won't be satisfactorily done. In the light of the unique character of every junior and liberal arts college, it is impossible to say how much is "enough." Therefore such quantitative standards as libraries are required to meet are essentially arbitrary, with little claim to universal acceptability. They are of three general kinds. First, a definite amount is specified as a minimal appropriation for books, regardless of size of student body, faculty, teaching method, or curriculum. This ranges for junior colleges from \$400 (Arkansas) to \$800 (West Virginia). Second, a certain amount is specified "per student," \$2.50 in some cases, \$5.00 in others. This approach, too, fails to take into consideration the nature of the curriculum and the teaching method; it also assumes that size of enrolment should determine library expenditures, rather than the necessities of the curriculum itself. The third type of financial standard assumes a constant relationship between educational activities and the library; therefore the library should receive a specific percentage of the total educational expenditure. In Nebraska this is given as 3 per cent. At least two criticisms may be made of this procedure: first, the assumption on which it is based—that a constant relationship should exist between

these two factors—is highly questionable and is not even supported by logic; for increased expenditure for, say, the department of astronomy, which is likely to use the library relatively little, should not lead to an increased library appropriation. In the second place, the percentage suggested is simply a guess. All of these "standards" have the virtue of practicability; they are all easy to apply. Unfortunately, after the application has been made one is still at a loss to know whether the support which a library receives is actually "adequate" or not.

Because of the shortcomings of the conventional standards for finance, they should be applied with caution. It should be recognized that a library which performs well when measured by them is not necessarily, or by virtue of that fact, a good library, any more than a library showing up poorly on the financial "norms" is inevitably a poor library. At best, measurements of financial support may throw light on reasons for a library's quality; the measure of quality itself is derived more directly and logically from the book stock and personnel.

Conclusion

Six approaches to the measurement of a library's quality have now been presented. In the last analysis they may not answer the question "How good is my library?" but they will certainly help the librarian to know more about his library than he does now, and they may even suggest ways and means of removing shortcomings where they exist. At the very least they will prevent him from proceeding blindly in response to a vague conviction that something is wrong without knowing specifically what.

By ROBERT REDFIELD

Research Materials in Middle American Ethnology, with Special Reference to Chicago Libraries

Dean Redfield of the Division of Social Sciences, University of Chicago, read this paper at the Reference Librarians Section, December 30, 1941.

YOU HAVE ASKED me to speak on the sources of materials in ethnology for Middle America, with additional reference to sources in this field in the Chicago area. The subject is one with which I have long been concerned but my concern has been casual and unorganized. This is the first time I have attempted to appraise the library collections in Chicago which make possible the ethnological investigations in which I have participated. The opportunity to consider the subject is welcome to me but I must at the outset confess that time has allowed me only a hasty review of the situation. In making this report I have been greatly assisted by James S. Slotkin and, indeed, without his efforts I could not appear before you today at all. Dr. Slotkin helped me to accomplish the first task on which this report is based and almost singlehanded performed the second. The first task was to prepare a classified list of selected principal works in Middle American ethnology; the second was to discover in which of the principal libraries of Chicago these works are to be found. The checklist of selected works

which is appended to this paper consists of about two hundred titles.

The checklist was made for only three libraries, Newberry, Field Museum Library, and the library of the University of Chicago. We chose only three because time was lacking to do more and we chose these three because our experience suggested that these libraries have the three best collections on Middle American ethnology in the city. If the public library or the Crerar library has a better collection than one of the three libraries we have chosen, I shall be surprised, although in certain areas their collections are no doubt good.

As Middle American ethnology is not one of the most popular or best known of subjects, I have thought it a large part of my task here to set forth the nature of the materials on which scholars in that field rely. Most of the following remarks, therefore, consist of a sort of classification and appraisal of these materials, and what I have to say on the distribution of these materials in the three libraries we have examined is a secondary part of my paper.

For the purposes of this report, I understand ethnology to have to do with the cultures of native peoples as they are learned about by direct verbal communication with them. In short, I am thinking

of ethnology as an investigation of customs and institutions as they are reported to us by the words and writings of the native peoples themselves. Archeology, on the other hand, which is excluded from this survey, recovers and studies the artifacts made by unfamiliar peoples. In general, the ethnologist talks with the natives and sees them as living beings. An archeologist digs up objects made by people before his time.

Eyewitness Accounts

In the Middle American field, however, the line is a little difficult to draw, because we are interested in the customs of the Indian peoples of that area as they prevailed when the Spaniards came in over four hundred years ago. The Spaniards of that time must be regarded as the ethnologists, and one large class of source materials consists of the documents in which those early eyewitness accounts were set down. These materials play a large part in the list of sources which we have prepared.

Furthermore, one class of materials has here been included which the archeologist might also well include: the hieroglyphic records on stone made chiefly by the ancient Maya. I have included this class of materials on the ground that these are in fact books written by the Indians about themselves and that they may be thought of as ethnological as truly as we may think of the writings of the early Spaniards about these Indians as ethnological.

Another difficulty which was encountered in preparing the list arises from the large amount of secondary analytical and critical literature. In the case of the works of the great scholars in this field, such as Eduard Seler, the writings of these

men amount to materials for research. Nevertheless, I have excluded them from my consideration and have considered only the more primary sources. To this I must add one exception: I have included modern commentary on special selected primary sources where published with the primary document.

Two Groups of Materials

From what I have said you have already understood, no doubt, that I have defined my task to cover materials with reference to the Middle American peoples as they existed at the time of the conquest as well as in later times. As a matter of fact, the materials tend to fall into two groups: accounts of native custom just before or not long after the conquest, and modern ethnology. Modern ethnology does not get under way until the very end of the nineteenth century, and indeed the titles of importance in the field are extremely few until the third and fourth decades of the twentieth century. The two groups of materials are in part connected by the travelers' accounts. During colonial times travel, especially by non-Spaniards, did not often occur in Latin America. Most of the titles worthy of mention under this heading appeared late in the nineteenth century.

It is probably not necessary to declare that I have supposed that this audience is concerned with materials useful for research and scholarly work. Therefore, the mention I will make of books written for more popular consumption will be small.

Before reviewing materials class by class, as I am about to do, I may declare my conclusion that the student of Middle American ethnology is very well provided

with the principal materials for work in his field by the three libraries I have mentioned. The collection at the Newberry is surely the best of the three, as it is in many fields having to do with the American Indian. Its collection of reproductions of native writing, the so-called codices, is particularly good. It is more difficult for me to compare the collections in the Field Museum and the University of Chicago but my impression is that the latter collection is the better.

Bibliographies

To my knowledge, no comprehensive bibliography on Middle American ethnology covering an entire period is in existence. The older bibliographies of Chavero and Brasseur de Bourbourg (2¹ and 1) are, of course, greatly out of date. All three libraries have the well-known *Handbook of Latin American Studies* (3), which gives excellent coverage of publications in the field during the few years the *Handbook* has been in existence. The student who wishes to search for titles in incomplete lists will look at the *Journal de la Société des Américanistes de Paris* (6) or at the *Ibero-Amerikanische Bibliographie* (4). The latter can be found only at the Newberry Library. Bibliographies of lesser importance are included in my list. I may add that I have in my office on cards, a bibliography of two or three hundred titles on recent Middle American ethnology which I would be glad to make available to students. It is, however, very imperfect in that coverage in the various areas is uneven, many titles are lacking, and some are included which should probably not be there.

¹ Refer to the bibliography at the end of the article.

Histories by Historians with European Training

What I have to say about the secondary works will be brief. Two great professional historians have summarized material they have drawn from some of the customs of the early Middle American peoples for their *opera magna*. I refer, of course, to Bancroft (8) and Prescott (10). Although both of these men made a careful use of primary sources which is rarely matched today in the same field, what they have to say about Aztec and Maya customs was so largely shaped by conceptions of society formed by knowledge of Europe and Asiatic barbarisms and by ignorance of other Indian communities, that their pages are hardly satisfactory today, even as introductions to the subject.

Recent General Works by Anthropologists

On the other hand, the works written by modern anthropologists, while they do better justice to the customs of the early Indian people, are in no cases works of scholarship and literary achievement comparable with the writings of Prescott. We have, however, been given in recent years books which present the facts about Aztec and Maya life and which, at the same time, suit the reading appetites of the interested layman. These works are all available in all three of the libraries. The Frenchman, Genet, has written one work of this sort on the Aztec peoples (13) and another on the Maya-Quiche group (14). Of writings in English in recent times one has a choice for the Maya between Blom's book (11) and that by Gann and Thompson (12). Both have their merit but neither is a work of first class. Means' monograph on the conquest of Yucatan (15) does not attempt any

summary description of Maya culture but it does have the advantage of publishing English translation of parts of certain of the source materials on the ancient Maya. The recent publication by George Vaillant on the Aztecs (17) will, I think, tend to take the place of the earlier work by J. Eric Thompson (16). None of the books I have mentioned has bibliographies of any research consequence, and for a research worker or scholar they are to be mentioned chiefly because he will wish to see what competent scholars have written for the layman on some points where the reader of the work may be planning to do research.

Important Series

I turn therefore to source materials. The research worker will find practically all of the series that I have included in my list in the Newberry Library. In a few instances the library of the University of Chicago has series, or parts of series, which are lacking in the Newberry. The Field Museum collections are weakest in this class of material. My list includes only series which bear on Middle American ethnology or closely related subjects, but the student will of course wish to have at hand more general periodicals in anthropology. Of current series, the publications of Carnegie Institution of Washington are of great importance, although in this context it is to be remembered that most of the publications are archeological rather than ethnological. Many other important series such as *The Ibero-Amerikanisches Archiv* (22) and the *Ibero-Amerikanische Studien* (23) are probably not continuing on account of the war. The important occasional proceedings of the International Congress of Americanists (25) will be

wanted by every investigator, and he will find them in all three libraries, except that the series in the Field Museum is reported as defective. Apparently the University of Chicago library is better off with reference to the publications of the National Museum of Mexico (31-37) than are the other two collections. The recently established and current Mexican scientific publication bearing on ethnology (40) is available in all three libraries, as are the important publications of the Department of Middle American Research of Tulane University (43).

Hieroglyphic Inscriptions of the Maya

I now turn to nonserial publications of source materials and consider first the writings of the Indian peoples themselves. My apology for including the hieroglyphic inscriptions of the Maya has already been made. The two great *Corpora Inscriptionum*, Morley's impressive publications on the inscriptions at Copan (45) and in the Peten (46), and the Maudslay publication of a generation ago (44), are available in all three libraries, as are the two best introductory works on the methods of deciphering hieroglyphs, of which Spinden (48) and Morley (47) are the authors. The more advanced student will need Teeple's monograph on Maya astronomy (49), which is also easy to get. It needs to be remembered that the study of Maya hieroglyphs is one of the more esoteric and highly specialized branches of Middle American research, but just because work in that field may be pursued without much reference to other branches of anthropology and perhaps because it has the charm of a difficult crossword puzzle, it has attracted a number of interested and able lay scholars.

Codices: Books Made by Indians

While the Maya or Yucatan and Guatemala were the only Middle American people to develop a system of calendrical notation to complexity, thus bringing about the special body of source materials to which I have just referred, most of the Indians of higher civilization in Mexico and Central America made records in more elementary and pictographic form; the resulting documents written on paper or parchment are known as "codices" and constitute a second important class of source materials. They were made for a variety of purposes and include no small range of subject matter. Some record calendrical computations; others give the divinatory tables and calculations of the priests specializing in the regulation of conduct according to days lucky and unlucky; others give records of land claims; still others list tribute demanded by a dominating tribe of a conquered group; and there are many that depict the religious and cosmogonic ideas of the Indians. The codices may also be considered from the point of view of their time of manufacture. Those written before the conquest are, of course, sources on the customs of the time which cannot be impugned as representing an adulteration with European influence. On the other hand some of these primitive books made after the Spaniards came are even more enlightening for the very reason that they were prepared in order to tell interested Spaniards what the old ways had been. Some of this latter class are provided with glosses either in Indian languages or in Spanish but in European script.

The publication and editing of these codices has been a major task of Middle American research for several generations

and is by no means ended. The various reproductions differ greatly as to their accuracy. The great Kingsborough collection (125) into which the English lord of that name put so much money, is a collector's item, but to the scholar the reproductions are not of great value because the copying was carelessly done. The most important dependable series of reproductions is that which bears the name of the man whose wealth made it possible, the Duc de Loubat. In recent years single codices have been reproduced either in this country or in Mexico and in most instances the recent reproductions are good.

The Newberry Library is extremely well provided with materials of this class to the degree that the scholar needing only these materials may well establish himself in that library. In cases of important codices such as the three surviving codices of the Yucatec Maya (50-65), the Newberry Library has all or most of the significant editions, while the Field Museum or the University of Chicago has to get along with one or two.

Preconquest Codices

Of the preconquest codices representing the Aztec and other Nahua groups, some of the most important, the Borgianus (66), the Fejérváry-Mayer (68, 69), and the Vaticanus (72) are all available in one edition or another in all three libraries. For these codices the commentaries (67, 70, 73) of the German scholar, Seler, are still of first importance. The Nahua codices dated after the conquest constitute a longer list (75-93). Here the gaps in the collection of the Field Museum and the University of Chicago are more noticeable. Nevertheless, their collections are not bad. A similar statement may be

made about the codices representing the Mixtec and Zapotecan peoples (94-106), lying geographically between the Maya and the Aztec. The particular Indian groups to which some of these codices are to be assigned are in some cases matters of doubt among scholars. In the list which I have made there are probably some errors of this sort and I have further recognized the difficulty by including a subheading of unclassified codices (107-118). As I review the situation I am impressed with the richness of the combined collections of the libraries of the Chicago area.

Besides the publication of reproductions of particular codices with or without critical annotation, there have been a number of publications that might be described as codex anthologies. The Kingsborough collection (125), already unfavorably noted, is present in the University of Chicago and the Newberry libraries, as are also the important collections by Boban and Peñafiel. For the Boban collection (120) one apparently has to go to the Newberry collection, as is also the case with the well-known documents edited by Garcia Cubas (123).

Books by Indians in Their Own Language but in European Writing

Still considering ethnological source materials written down by the Indians themselves, I have next in view those writings by Indians made after the conquest in their own language but in the alphabetic characters which they learned from the Spaniards. These are again of many sorts. Some are tribal traditions including often myths as to the origin of the world and dynastic or genealogical lists. Some included prophecies and scraps of history. Many are tribal annals. Some

of these were written down simply to perpetuate the sacred traditions originally, no doubt, expressed in native picture writing, while others were prepared for particular reasons connected with the relations of the Indians with their conquerors, notably in case of land disputes.

The great American editor of these materials in the last decades of the nineteenth century was Daniel G. Brinton. Various of his publications, some of which deal with the Nahua peoples and others with the Mayan group, are present in the libraries reviewed, but in this case the Newberry library is less well off than the other two collections. The Yucatec Maya have provided us with a group of important documents of this sort, no one of which is actually very old but which were connected by copies now lost with pre-Columbian tradition. These copies are known as the books of Chilam Balam (131-33, 135). The recent translations in editings of two of these are easy to get in the Chicago libraries. About the Quiche of Guatemala, the great work of this class is known as the *Popol Vuh* (136-38). So far as my records go the University of Chicago has the early edition edited by Brasseur de Bourbourg (136) while the Newberry Library has the later editions. I may add that none of these editions is quite satisfactory to a scholar.

Eighteenth Century Materials

This review of materials has now passed the conquest and carries us into the eighteenth century. I will return to consider the documents written in Spanish, in most cases by Spaniards but in a few cases by Europeanized Indians in the first generation after the conquest. If any group of materials on the early ethnology of Middle

America is to be selected for emphasis, it will be this group. Here are included the fluent, first-hand accounts of those men who saw the Indian cultures as they were flourishing and put down not long afterwards what they saw. They begin with the immediate reports of Cortes in his well-known letters (148-50) and go on to include such later and more reflective military accounts as that of Bernal Diaz del Castillo (151-59) as well as the more penetrating and more important ethnological reporting of those missionaries who took the pains to learn the Indian languages and to live closely with the natives. The military accounts have the freshness of the first shock of contact, but the later missionaries got the facts. The greatest work of this group for the Nahua area is the famous book of the priest Sahagun (175-78). The volumes in which he made his original notes in the Indian language of the Aztecs are still to be consulted in Mexico City. There has been a string of editions of the Spanish work which Sahagun made later from the notes. The recent Mexican edition in five volumes is probably most useful for most purposes. The corresponding work for the Maya is Bishop Landa's account of Yucatan (169-71). As in most other cases the Newberry Library has the most editions of this work, but the scholar will find the very recent and almost definitive translation prepared by Professor Tozzer (172) in any one of the three libraries. To be included with this group of sources are the accounts written neither by conquerors nor by missionaries but by administrative investigators sent out from Spain to get facts about the native. The work of Zúrita represents this class (178-A).

Our checklist of titles in this class groups these works according to the half-century in which the document was first issued. It will be seen from this list that the Newberry again leads but that the other libraries are not badly off. In recent years there has appeared no student of these sources comparable with Bandelier, who made such significant use of them over fifty years ago. A recent appraisal of sources by Waterman deserves mention; it is a brief critical discussion of works of this class. Besides Sahagun and Landa, other outstanding names of authors who set down ethnology are Acosta (161-64), Duran (167), Gómara (168), Motolinía (173), Muñoz Camarga (174). All these represent chiefly the culture of the Aztecs. For the Zapotecs the important work is by Burgoa (180) and for the various Central American peoples we need the work by Oviedo y Valdés (160).

There have been several important collections of these documents from that of García Icazbalceta (193), which appeared in the middle of the last century, to the recent issue by France Scholes (195) of documents referring only to Yucatan. Here the student will find that the University of Chicago and Newberry libraries can provide him with his wants.

It has perhaps taken me too long a time to bring this review up to materials dealing with the Indian as he exists today in Mexico and Central America. But the fact is that in library research a wealth of material refers to early history and demands the training of an historian. Ethnology, in a sense of systematic study guided by problems of living peoples, is a very recent phenomenon anywhere. When it did appear in this country and in England, it is natural that it was first carried

on among the simpler peoples under the political control or influence of England or the United States. The extension of modern ethnological method into the Indian peoples of Mexico and the Central American nations awaited the coming of age of the science and the establishment of such security and political relations as would make field work favorable. Therefore, what I have to say on the ethnological sources of recent times is not a very great deal.

Travelers' Accounts

As I remarked earlier, a sort of link between the early materials and the new materials is provided by travelers' accounts. It was very exceptional for a non-Spaniard to travel in colonial Latin America. Thomas Gage (179), an English Catholic who gave up that religion and wrote a book about his experiences, chiefly in Guatemala, is almost an exception. His work is of use in considering the seventeenth century ethnology of the Guatemalan Indians. In the middle of the nineteenth century John L. Stephens, a hardy and observant traveler, provided us with two works (200, 201) of great readability and considerable ethnological value. These are available in all three libraries. Two less important works by Norman (198, 199), dealing only with the Yucatan, may be mentioned.

The writers just mentioned made no claim to be scientists. At the end of the nineteenth century there appeared the first professional ethnological visitors to Middle America. The three great names in this group are Lumholtz (202-05), Starr (206-08), and Stoll (209). All three traveled extensively in areas where almost no ethnological knowledge existed and

opened up fields for later intensive work. The chief writings of these men are easily obtained. To this group might well be added Karl Sapper, whose writings are often geographical rather than ethnological in nature, but who has reported a great deal about well-known Indian customs.

These men were the forerunners of modern ethnology. When I come to this subject, which it might have been thought should have been the substance of my report, I find the difficulty of saying anything useful to be great. The facts are briefly these. The present-day native peoples of Middle America are represented in substantial ethnological monographs in no more than a score of titles. All these works appear in the twentieth century and most of them have appeared in the last decade. There has been in fact a sort of burst of scientific ethnology in Mexico and Guatemala. In the other Central American countries far less has been done indeed, except for the excellent work by the Swedish scholar, Nordenskiöld, on a Panamanian tribe, and far less important reporting by Conzemius (224) on some surviving tribal groups along the Mosquito coast.

Book-Length Ethnologies

These more important book-length ethnologies of recent times are well represented in the Chicago libraries, as one might anticipate. If the student wishes to go beyond such works he will find himself digging for minute crumbs of ethnological gold in an immense mass of minor literature much of it in periodical form. I have not attempted to list the publications in which such material could be found. My own card index file includes a good many such references. It is at this point

that the student will find the Chicago libraries do not give him everything he wants, particularly in the case of obscure periodicals issued in Central American countries.

In bringing this review to a close it should be added that the development of modern ethnology has been, relatively speaking, so rapid and so recent that a considerable amount of important material lies unpublished on the decks of contemporary ethnologists. Thus, the student of

Indian peoples of the Midwest Highlands of Guatemala will find himself writing letters to two or three specialists who are getting their notes into book form for publication and he will find it more important to him to consult with such persons than to burrow deeply in the libraries in search of minor materials. This remark takes me away from the libraries of Chicago which are your interest and so properly brings this report to an end.

Classification of the Material

A. Bibliographies

- Brasseur de Bourbourg, C. E. N (1)
Bibliothèque mexico-guatemalienne. Paris, 1871
- Chavero, A. N (2)
Apuntes Viejos de Bibliografía Mexicana. Mexico, 1903-07 Vol. 1-F
- Handbook of Latin American Studies. Cambridge, 1935 UNF (3)
- Ibero-Amerikanische Bibliographie, 1930. No. XIII wanting N (4)
- Instituto Panamericano de Geografía e Historia UNF (5)
Boletín bibliográfico de antropología Americana.
- Journal de la Société des Américanistes de Paris UNF (6)
- Teixidor, F. NF (7)
Bibliografía Yucateca. Merida, 1937

B. Secondary Works

- I. *Histories (By Historians with European Training)*
- Bancroft, G. UN (8)
Native Races of the Pacific States. San Francisco, 1874
- Brasseur de Bourbourg, C. E. N (9)
Histoire des Nations Civilisées du Mexique et de l'Amérique-Centrale. Paris, 1857-59

- Prescott, W. H. UN (10)
The Conquest of Mexico. New York, 1922

II. *Histories (Recent General Works by Anthropologists)*

- Blom, F. UNF (11)
The Conquest of Yucatan. Boston, 1936
- Gann, T., and Thompson, J. E. UNF (12)
The History of the Maya. New York, 1931
- Genet, J. UNF (13)
Histoire des peuples Shoshones-Azèques. Paris, 1929
- Histoire des peuples Mayas-Quichés. Paris, 1927 UNF (14)
- Means, P. A. UNF (15)
History of the Spanish Conquest of Yucatan and of the Itzas. (Peabody Museum, Papers, 7). Cambridge, Mass., 1917
- Thompson, J. E. UNF (16)
Mexico before Cortez. New York, 1934
- Vaillant, G. C. UNF (17)
Aztecs of Mexico. New York, 1941

C. Source Materials

I. *Important Series*

- Carnegie Institution of Washington publications UNF (18)

- Cortes Society UNF (19)
Documents and Narratives Concerning
the Discovery and Conquest of Latin
America. New York, 1917
- Ethnos UNF (20)
- Ibero-Americana UN (21)
- Ibero-Amerikanisches Archiv UNF (22)
- Ibero-Amerikanische Studien UNF (23)
- Instituto Panamericano de Geografía e His-
toria UN (24)
Publicaciones No. 34 and 45 F
- International Congress of Americanists
UN (25)
Vols. 3, 6, 11 missing F
- Maya Research UNF (26)
- Maya Society NF (27)
Publications
- Maya Society F (28)
Quarterly
- Mexican Art & Life
(Missed N) UF (29)
- Mexican Folkways UF (30)
Vol. 7 N
- Mexico, Museo Nacional de Arqueología,
Historia y Etnografía N (31)
- Anales UNF (32)
- Boletín (Incomplete) U (33)
(Incomplete 1-3) N
(Incomplete) F
- Cartillas de Vulgarización U (34)
- Monografías U (35)
- Publicaciones UN (36)
- Mexico, Museo Nacional, Sección de Et-
nología U (37)
Conferencias
- Museum of The American Indian
UNF (38)
Indian Notes & Monographs
- Peabody Museum UNF (39)
Papers
- Revista Mexicana de Estudios UNF (40)
Históricos
- Sociedad Mexicana de Antropología
Revista mexicana de estudios antropolo-
gicos N (41)
- Société des Américanistes de Paris Journal
UNF (42)
- Tulane University, Department of Middle
American Research UNF (43)
Middle American Research series
- II. *With Regard to Pre-Columbian and
Early Post-Columbian Times*
1. *Written by Indians in Their Own Forms
of Writing*
- a. *Hieroglyphic Inscriptions of the Maya
(Chiefly on Stone)*
- Goodman, F. du C., and Calvin, O.
UNF (44)
Biología centrali-americana. London,
1879-1911. Maudslay, A. P., and Good-
man, J. T. Archaeology
- Morley, C. G. UNF (45)
The Inscriptions at Copan. Carnegie In-
stitution of Washington Publications 219.
Washington, 1920
- The Inscriptions of Peten UNF (46)
Carnegie Institution of Washington Pub-
lications 437. Washington, 1938
- Morley, C. G. UNF (47)
An Introduction to the Study of Maya
Hieroglyphs BAE-B, 57. Washington,
1915
- Spinden, H. J. UNF (48)
The Decipherment of Maya Dates
- Teeple, John NF (49)
Maya Astronomy. Carnegie Institution
of Washington. Contributions VI, No. 2
- b. *Codices: Books Made by Indians*
(1) *Maya Codices*
- Codex Dresdensis NF (50)
(MC-P, 2) Baltimore, 1932
- Comment:
- Förstemann, C. E. N (51)
Die Maya-Handschrift der Königlichen
Öffentlichen Bibliothek zu Dresden.
Dresden, 1892
- Thomas, C. UNF (52)
The Maya Year (BAE-B, 18). Wash-
ington, 1894
- Förstemann, C. E., Wesselhoeft, C., and
Parker, A. M. UNF (53)
(Peabody Museum Papers, 42). Cam-
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By NELLE SIGNOR

League of Nations Publications in the Present Emergency¹

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IT IS IMPORTANT, in the light of present-day affairs, for one to review the achievements of the League of Nations during the past twenty years in order to evaluate again the ideals and principles of international cooperation embodied in all its undertakings. The publications of the League of Nations are important sources of information for study and research because of their international aspect, the wide field of subjects included, and their high standards of accuracy and thoroughness. Many people think of the League of Nations only as a political unit, focusing their attention on its several failures and disregarding its constructive and humanitarian activities.

In spite of the present war and the rapid change of governments, the technical organizations in the League of Nations have been able to carry on a fair amount of research and publication. The Publication Department of the League of Nations recently announced the regular continuance of two periodicals, *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* and *Weekly Epidemiological Record*. In addition, the Treaty Series will be continued and documents will be issued by the Economic and Financial

Section, Social Section, Disarmament Section, and Opium Section.

The chaotic conditions in Europe have made it necessary to distribute the work of the League of Nations among various centers. The Political Section was kept at Geneva; the Economic, Financial, and Transit sections were centered at Princeton University; the Opium Section was transferred to Washington; and the International Labour Office, whose work is closely allied with that of the league, was removed to McGill University, Montreal. Difficulties arose over the transportation of French officials of the International Labour Office to a belligerent country, making it necessary to transfer some of the work of this office to Washington. The publications of the Permanent Court of International Justice have been suspended indefinitely. The offices of the World Court were closed when the Peace Palace at the Hague was bombed. The International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation at Paris is closed and no publications are being issued.

Because of the uncertainty of publication and the limited number of copies being printed, libraries, particularly those binding sets by publication number, would be well advised to scrutinize very carefully global subscriptions to League of Nations' documents to insure receipt of all publications. The *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* and weekly *Epidemiological Record* sub-

¹ The information in this article is as of June 1942.

scriptions are invoiced separately from global orders and from other corresponding orders; other publications have been placed on a continuation order basis, whereby documents are supplied as they are published and billed at the end of the year. League of Nations publications may be secured through the International Document Service, Columbia University Press, New York City.

American interest in the wartime activities of the League of Nations was first made evident by the organization of a national committee of eminent Americans to aid and preserve the League of Nations nonpolitical work. This was followed by a joint invitation from Princeton University, the Institute for Advanced Study, and the Rockefeller Institute of Medical Research to the League of Nations to establish its technical services at Princeton University for the duration of the emergency. This invitation was accepted on behalf of the Economic, Financial, and Transit sections, and in August 1940 the director and part of their staff were sent to Princeton University. Certain members of the sections were left in Geneva to follow the economic developments within Europe in order to supply data for continuing the statistical publications. Much of the present work of this department has been made possible by a grant of fifty thousand dollars from the Rockefeller Foundation, to be used during the years 1941 and 1942.

ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL SECTION

Economic Intelligence Service—Statistical Documents

The Economic and Financial Section of the League of Nations has doubtless made its greatest contribution to research in the

field of comparative statistics. The Economic Intelligence Service which is connected with the Economic and Financial Section is responsible for some of the most important statistical data published by this section. This service was founded as a result of the Brussels Conference of 1920. Its immediate object was to coordinate and centralize information made public by national administrators on subjects of economic importance. It has published regularly so much economic and financial information that it has now become one of the most valuable and highly appreciated sources of financial and economic documentation. Previously it published in the course of the year three strictly statistical documents and a series of studies dealing with different aspects of the world economic situation. Although economic statistics and financial information have been greatly curtailed, the league is making every effort to continue the work of the Economic Intelligence Service owing to the fact that new economic trends which are becoming more evident during the war period are likely to become the bases for formulating postwar economic policies. With this in mind the league has decided to continue two strictly statistical publications, the *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* and the *Statistical Yearbook*; the *World Economic Survey* and a number of special studies are also being published.

The *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics*, which has been issued at Geneva monthly since July 1919, is continuing without interruption. This gives the most recent figures on the economic and financial development of the countries of the world based on official information specially supplied each month. With September 1940 copies were also printed on thin paper to

be sent by airmail for the league's mission in Princeton.

While the *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* gives a current indication of the status of economic conditions throughout the world, the *Statistical Yearbook of the League of Nations* is restricted to an intensive study of statistical data for a selected number of subjects of current importance. The latest issue of the *Statistical Yearbook* gives statistics up to the end of 1939 and in some cases also for the first half of 1940.

Economic Intelligence Service—Special Studies

While the statistical documents described above are made up largely of statistical tables from which one may draw his own conclusions, the *World Economic Studies* are analyses of world conditions drawn from information collected from all parts of the world, which were formerly issued in separate memoranda. Available material on such subjects as world trade, production and prices, banking, and public finance, is no longer complete enough to justify the publication of the separate memoranda. Instead, the Economic Intelligence Service has issued a *World Economic Survey* covering the period from the autumn of 1939 to the summer of 1941. Previous issues of the *World Economic Survey* (1932-39) consisted of a general analysis of the organization of industry and commerce in the world as a whole, based mainly on the results of the various studies carried on by the Economic Intelligence Service supplemented by the information drawn from other sources, such as the International Labour Office. The *World Economic Survey 1939-41*, which was published at Princeton by the uni-

versity press in 1941, is a survey of the world at war. It deals with the problems of war economy in the countries at war as well as the reverberations of the war throughout the world. The first chapters deal with the means by which the change from peace to war economy was effected in the different countries, while the later chapters deal with the effect of these changes on various forms of economic activity.

Raw Materials and Foodstuffs was published at Geneva in January 1940. It is a study of the sources of supply of all the more important raw materials and foodstuffs arranged by country for the years 1935 and 1938. The main tables are so arranged that by consulting a single table one may see the countries which produce each commodity and the amount of production for each country. It is an excellent reference source for those desiring exact information on production and trade in raw materials and foodstuffs.

Because of the reduction of national trade statistics it has been impossible to continue the publication, *Review of World Trade*, which appeared annually for the years 1933-38. It has been replaced by a special study, *Europe's Trade*, published in Geneva in the spring of 1941. This is an analysis of the part played by Europe in the trade of the world before the outbreak of the present war and a consideration of how far Europe is dependent upon external markets and to what extent external markets are dependent upon her. It is the plan of the Economic Intelligence Service to follow up this analysis with a companion volume covering the trade of the rest of the world.

Since 1931 the Economic Intelligence Service has published an annual memoran-

dum on commercial banks, under varying titles. In 1937 under the title *Money and Banking* a two-volume series was published: v. 1. *Monetary Review*, v. 2. *Commercial Banks*. It was decided with the 1939-40 issue of *Money and Banking* to discontinue the second volume but to continue the *Monetary Review*. The latest number was published in Geneva in 1940 and covers the period September 1939-40. It is a study of the far-reaching measures adopted by various governments for the control and operation of the banking system since the outbreak of the war. A brief introductory note precedes the review, which summarizes the monetary situation—from the appearance of the preceding issue of the *Monetary Review* in the spring of 1939 to September 1939.

The Fiscal Committee

Since its organization in 1929 the Fiscal Committee has had as its main objective the formulation of treaties and conventions to prevent double taxation in the fields of income and property taxes. In spite of the present war situation the Fiscal Committee has held two meetings, one at the Hague in April 1940 and the second at Mexico City, June 1940. The second meeting was particularly significant since it was the outcome of a request made in 1938 to the Fiscal Committee by the Mexican government that a study be made of certain principles of taxation which would be helpful to Latin American countries which were in the process of developing their tax systems. Because war had spread all over Europe at this time, the Mexican government extended an invitation to the conference to convene at Mexico City. Representatives from Argentina, Brazil, Peru, Venezuela, Mexico, Canada,

and the United States were present to comment on the preliminary studies submitted. The important result of the meeting was the adoption of a draft for a model convention for the prevention of double taxation in the field of income and property taxes, which brings up to date the model conventions framed by the Conference of Governmental Experts of 1928. It is highly important that the work of the Fiscal Committee be continued since the question of double taxation will undoubtedly be an important problem of the post-war period, especially in its relation to inter-American trade.

HEALTH SECTION

Epidemics

The successful work of the League of Nations in the control of infectious diseases is due largely to the Epidemiological Intelligence Service. The work of this service is so important that at the present time it is receiving support both from neutral countries and from countries at war. Since January 1930 it has published the *Weekly Epidemiological Record* regularly at Geneva. This periodical supplies prompt information on the prevalence of contagious disease which at the time constitute an international danger. Until the time of the Japanese occupation, the most important part of the service was centered at Singapore, to which place more than 180 ports in the surrounding area sent in cable messages weekly or even more frequently concerning the occurrence of epidemic disease. In normal times the information received at the Singapore bureau was analyzed and broadcast by ten wireless stations to every health officer, every captain of a ship, and every airplane pilot in the area from Panama on the East,

Suez on the West, and Vladivostok on the North, so that they might know to what extent disease prevailed and what quarantine measures to adopt. Before the fall of Singapore the officers in charge of this service were safely transferred to Sydney, but at the present time it is not known whether it will prove possible to reestablish the bureau in another center. The information assembled at Singapore was published currently under the title: *Weekly Fascicules: Epidemiological Intelligence Received by the Eastern Bureau*. No. 878 of January 8, 1942, is the latest that has been seen. A similar service exists at Geneva for information concerning epidemics in Europe, but so far there has been less need for rapid service than in the Far East. With the migrations of peoples and movements of troops resulting from the war the Epidemiological Service has followed very closely all developments of epidemics of infectious diseases and has taken every precaution to prevent their spread.

Biological Standardization

In 1924 the Health Committee of the League of Nations set up a Permanent Commission on Biological Standardization to establish international standards for the use of sera, glandular preparations, vitamins, and other remedies, the activity of which can be measured only by biological methods. By 1935 the commission had made available international standards and units for most of the important drugs which are biologically tested. Since in wartime the standards of serum content are so important, the Copenhagen Serological Institute together with the London Institute have made a great effort to continue the normal distribution of standards

of sera, vitamins, hormones, and certain other medicaments to most countries.

The Bulletin of the Health Organization was issued quarterly from March 1932 to December 1936 and bimonthly from February 1937 to December 1939 at Geneva. It includes material brought together by the Health Organization of the league on such subjects as epidemics, malaria, biological standardization, housing, nutrition, cancer, tuberculosis, and rabies. For the information of those interested in medical subjects it includes articles by leading authorities in the field of health and social medicine.

SOCIAL SECTION

Child Welfare

In 1934 the Assembly of the League of Nations established the Child Welfare Information Center to centralize information relating to child welfare. For the last three years it has collected and classified information concerning child welfare and has issued each year a *Summary of the Legislative and Administrative Series of Documents of the Child Welfare Information Center*. The last issue was published at Geneva in January 1940 and as in previous years it summarizes documents relating to maternal and child welfare and social service. The information center also published an *Annual Report on Child Welfare* which aims to show the progress made in child welfare in the various countries from the legislative and administrative points of view. This includes either a summary or the complete text of important laws which have been put in force for the protection of families and children and to combat prostitution. The latest issue was published at Geneva in March 1940.

The Advisory Committee on Social

Questions issues annually a *Summary of Annual Reports on Traffic in Women and Children*. This consists of summaries of reports made by the governments of various countries in reply to questionnaires on social questions issued by the advisory committee. The *Summary* for 1939-40 was published at Geneva in May 1941.

OPIUM SECTION

Drug Traffic

At meetings held in Geneva in May 1940 the three international organizations dealing with the drug traffic, namely, the Advisory Committee on Traffic in Opium and Dangerous Drugs, the Permanent Central Opium Board, and the Drug Supervisory Body, decided to continue their technical work during the war, since past experience had shown that need for drug control increased rather than diminished under war conditions.

The Advisory Committee on Traffic in Opium and Other Dangerous Drugs, which met for its twenty-fifth session on May 13-17, 1940, included delegations from thirteen out of the twenty-three government members. Special emphasis was placed on the importance of cooperation of the governments with the international organizations in order to prevent the extension of illicit drug traffic and increased drug addiction resulting from the war. The *Minutes* of this meeting were published in Geneva, December 1940.

The Permanent Central Opium Board is concerned with the control of trade in narcotic drugs, based on statistics supplied by the various governments. In January 1941 it issued the regular *Annual Report on the Statistics of Narcotics for 1939 and the Work of the Board during 1940*. This report which is based on statistics

received from fifty countries and from ninety to one hundred dependencies, is mainly statistical as war conditions have made it necessary to omit analysis and comment.

The Drug Supervisory Body is the organization which determines the lawful amount of drugs that may be manufactured and consumed throughout the world during a given year. It examines the estimates of the narcotic requirements submitted by the various governments and draws up estimates for countries for which estimates have not been submitted. Its most recent statement, *Estimated World Requirements of Dangerous Drugs in 1942*, was published in Geneva, December 1941.

In the spring of 1941, owing to difficulties of communication with certain countries, a branch office of the Permanent Central Opium Board and the Drug Supervisory Body was established in Washington where the control of drug traffic will be centered during the present war.

Refugees

By a resolution passed by the Assembly of the League of Nations in September 1938 the Nansen International Office for Refugees ceased its activities in December 1938 and a high commissioner of the League of Nations was appointed to deal with refugees. The high commissioner issued an *Annual Report* in July 1939, a *Supplementary Report*, October 1939, and an *Intermediate Report*, April 1940. His latest report which is dated January 1941, as in the case of previous ones, deals, not only with the humanitarian aspect of the refugee problem, but with the provisions made for the legal protection of refugees and their emigration and settlement. Much of the information included is based

on personal interviews of the high commissioner with representatives of the governments and private organizations assisting in the work.

Treaty Series

About two hundred volumes of this series have been published since September 1920. The series includes treaties of peace, treaties of commerce, international conventions, renewals and denunciation of treaties, and so forth. The texts of the treaties are in their original language with an English and French translation added when the text is not in one of these two languages. It is the intention of the league to continue the publication of this series as long as funds permit.

Library

The *Monthly List of Selected Articles* resumed publication in January 1941, after an interruption from May to December 1940. At present it is not published each month but appears in combined issues at various intervals. It is a selected list of articles on political, legal, economic, financial, and social questions of the day compiled from abstracts made of about eight hundred periodicals appearing in all parts of the world. At the present time there

is no other such publication being issued in Europe.

Recent Publications on Present Activities of the League of Nations

The purpose of the foregoing article has been to list and describe the services and publications of the league which have continued during the present World War. The articles in the following bibliography are cited as a useful means of current orientation on the actual work of this vast organization.

Geneva Research Center. "Geneva as an International Centre." (*Its Information Bulletin* v. 3, no. 1, 1940)

Hambro, C. J. "League Agencies Functioning." *New York Times*, Nov. 3, 1941, p. 6.

Mary E. Woolley Committee. Press Release. New York, June 1, 1940.

Sweetser, Arthur. "Correcting a False Impression about the League." *New York Times*, Nov. 23, 1941, Sec. 4, p. 4.

Sweetser, Arthur. "League Work in America." *Changing World* 12:7,12, Sept. 1940.

Sweetser, Arthur. "The United States and World Organization in 1940." (*Geneva Studies*, v. 11, no. 8, Dec. 1940) Reprinted in *International Conciliation*, 1941, p. 603-13.

Woolley, Mary E. "Must These Things Die?" *Changing World* 12:9, June 1940.

Classification and the Scholar

Mr. Dunkin is senior cataloger, Folger Shakespeare Library, Washington, D.C.

LIBRARIANS have written much on classification; the scholar—the layman in the stacks—is yet to be heard from.

The librarian, Mr. Bliss no less than Mr. Dewey, is essentially an ambitious theorist concerned with working out an elaborate general scheme for the organization of all knowledge. This because he assumes that a book is most easily found when its place on the shelf is determined by the logical relation of its subject matter to all subject matter. Like a modern Alexander he dreams of the fusion of all culture into an harmonious whole. But the scholar of today can no longer take all knowledge for his province. He is a busy man in a tiny corner, a princeling in the librarian's far-flung empire. Lofty talk of sweeping organization for the accomplishment of ultimate universal ends leaves him cold; he hopes only that the talkers will not prevent him from working efficiently in his own little world.

The scholar's stack permit is useful to him only if the librarian's classification shelves the books that he needs for his research where he can easily find them. The moment he must walk out to the card catalog in order to locate a book whose general subject he knows, the classification scheme has failed him. It would be more practical for him in that case to have the books on the shelf in the simple order of

their accession. The catalog card could give him an accession number as readily as a classification number, and once he had found the book he would know the exact place on the shelf where it would be forever. Moreover, the money now spent on classification could buy him more books.

The traditional library classification is a philosophical scheme; what the scholar wants is functional classification—an arrangement of books according to needs as those needs appear as the result of experience. Law, business, and even library administration are based on constant experiment, but library classification is still based on a priori reasoning. Yet functional classification is not a particularly new notion. The bookseller has always shelved his books not by logic but according to prospective buyers' wants. A few years ago Grace O. Kelley clearly demonstrated that traditional shelving does not serve library patrons nearly so efficiently as has always been assumed,¹ and in the Detroit Public Library Ralph Ulveling has for some time been urging that books on open shelves be arranged according to readers' interest.²

To the scholar good classification means only two things: (1) One section of the general stacks must be given over entirely to his books, and (2) The books in that

¹ Kelley, Grace O. *The Classification of Books; An Inquiry into Its Usefulness to the Reader*. 1937.

² "Should We Classify and Catalog from the Reader's Point of View?" *A.L.A. Bulletin* 32:55, January 1938.

section must be arranged in an intelligible (not necessarily logical) sequence.

The implications of these general observations will become more apparent with a casual examination of the "language" and "literature" groups in classification schemes.

Both the Dewey Decimal Classification and the Library of Congress Classification have held to the peculiar but common conceit of a series of separate static languages and a series of separate static literatures. There are, indeed, such things as "the science of philology" and "great literature;" and the scholar does edit a text and interpret a literature. But if he is to do these jobs well he must know the folk who spoke that language and wrote that literature, and he must exhaust every possible source in his endeavor to reconstruct their lives and their culture, their problems and their mistakes.

Inscriptions

A book of inscriptions, for instance, is an innocent enough affair. Normally a classifier would tuck it into a special nook where none but a linguist might find it with ease. But what of the classical scholar who traces the increase of prices

and decrease of wages in Greece of the third century before Christ by means of a series of inscriptions?

Erasmus' editor must know something of Luther and the Reformation and the Peasants' Revolt. Understanding of Vergil's *Aeneid* or the poetry of d'Annunzio is not complete without some consideration of Augustus and Mussolini.

More's *Utopia*, no less than Swift's *Gulliver*, is a product of its author's milieu and may properly be studied only with that entire milieu in mind—historical, social, and economic. The student of modern literature must be acquainted with Marx and Darwin and Freud as well as Sinclair Lewis and Kipling and George Bernard Shaw.

All this, of course, is obvious.

But classifiers have ignored it. Inscriptions are language, while prices and wages are economics; Erasmus is literature, but Luther is religion; Vergil and d'Annunzio are poetry, but Augustus and Mussolini are history.

This is not just captious criticism. The following table shows how D.C. and L.C. treat certain subjects of interest to the scholar in a specific field, the study of the classics:

Greek and Latin Subjects

L.C.		D.C.	
Language and Literature	P—PA	Language:	470-480
		Literature:	870-880
Epigraphy and Palaeography	Epigraphy: CN	Latin:	471.7
	Palaeography: Z114	Greek:	481.7
Early Christian Literature	BR60-67		281.1

	L.C.	D.C.
Geography, Antiquities, and History	Greek: DF10-289 Roman: DG11-365	Antiquities: 913.37-913.38 History: 937-938
Numismatics	CJ201-1143	737.37-737.38
Bibliography	Z7016-7026	016
Periodicals and Society Publications	Classed according to subject	Classed according to subject
Art	N5605-5896	709.37-709.38
Law	K	349.37-349.38
Philosophy	B165-708	180
Mythology and Religion	BL700-820	292

The consolidation of the major group of books, "Language and Literature," is much better than D.C.'s curious assumption (common though it is in classification schemes) that all languages belong together and all literatures together. Moreover, L.C.'s internal arrangement is excellent: In two large alphabetical files every Greek author and every Latin author has, or can easily find, a place. D.C., on the other hand, insists upon its "mnemonic" singsong of nine points in Greek and Latin literatures. This produces a curious result. In each literature "Miscellany" is heavily laden while the other eight groups have only one or two reputable authors apiece to justify their existence. D.C.'s shelving of "Epigraphy" and "Palaeography" in the language section is more useful than L.C.'s treatment, but both systems separate classical Greek and Latin literature from "Early Christian Literature."

The second major group, "Geography, Antiquities, and History," is split by both

systems, although the theory of splitting differs. Probably the D.C. arrangement is more useful, but neither is satisfactory. Books on the minor allied subject, "Numismatics," are to be found in still a third section.

The importance of "Bibliography" and "Periodicals" cannot be overemphasized. In a careful analysis Grace O. Kelley has demonstrated that not more than one third of the material brought out under a specific subject in a dictionary catalog is shelved under that subject's specific class number.³ Of *all* literature upon a subject, the share brought out by classification is, of course, considerably less than one third. "Bibliography" and "Periodicals" are the scholar's key to the great bulk of material which classification cannot locate for him. But in neither scheme are classical bibliographies shelved with any group of classical books, and in both schemes classical periodicals are scattered through the stacks

³ Kelley, *op. cit.*, 100-25.

according to specific subject.

"Art" and "Law," on the other hand, are examples of minor subjects whose segregation is merely irritating. Finally, "Philosophy" and "Mythology" represent borderline groups of books to which the classical scholar can lay claim only if they have been purchased with funds at his disposal.⁴

To the classical scholar this scattering is senseless chaos; to the librarian it is justified by the very good reason that in the theories of the organization of universal knowledge upon which these systems are based Latin and Greek culture is not a unit.

Theory Costly

In a large library, theory costs the classical scholar many a weary mile. Now it is true that H. E. Bliss presented the field of the classics as a "peculiar" problem, "one of the most difficult that the classifier has to face," because "the philological study of the culture has largely coalesced with the archeological study of the civilization."⁵ But this "peculiarity" is in reality typical of the study of every literature. For the present it need be pointed out only that the Elizabethan scholar (to take the specific case of a modern literature) works with Elizabethan handwriting (palaeography), Francis Bacon (philosophy and law), Elizabeth and Essex (history and biography), "rogues and vagabonds" (sociology and economics), and Thomas Cartwright (religion), as well as with the

plays of Shakespeare (literature).

The librarian treats of one vast world whose parts he calls language, art, science, literature, history, philosophy, economics. The scholar busies himself, not with some small atom of these larger units, but with a cross section of that entire world—language, science, literature, history, and all. The librarian's classification is, so to speak, vertical; the scholar's, horizontal.

The significance of this conflict cannot be overemphasized. The stacks are where the scholar comes into most intimate contact with the library. If that contact day after day invariably perplexes or infuriates him, he cannot fail to entertain some peculiar notions about librarians. And the scholar is a powerful library patron. Both the small college and the large university find that books, no less than salaries, keep able men on their faculties. By the same token, the librarian of the small college or the large university finds that the scholar often dominates faculty library committees. The A.L.A. figures on salary and tenure in university libraries as compared with the salary and tenure of university instructors can have no great significance so long as this fundamental difference about classification remains. The scholar will continue to feel, and with some justification, that the librarian whose stacks cause him all this trouble must persist in error because he is at worst mentally inferior or at best stubbornly pedantic. On the faculty library committee and in his conferences with other faculty members and with trustees, he will certainly voice his dissatisfaction.

Clamorous Minority

By way of defense the librarian may urge that the scholar represents only a

⁴ Indeed, the distinction seems a bit hazy in the systems themselves. In D.C., for instance, under "Plato" in the 380's there is a note, "Class his works preferably in 888.4, but discussion of his philosophy here." Is Plato's *Republic* Greek literature, but Paul Shorey's *What Plato Said*, Greek "philosophy"?

⁵ Bliss, H. E. *System of Classification*, 2d ed., rev. (1936) 38.

clamorous minority of the library's patrons. This is to forget that he is the only patron with direct access to the stacks. So far as the stacks are concerned, a classification scheme which serves the scholar cannot discommode other patrons; their books from the stacks are secured for them by library-trained stack attendants who could easily find their way about stacks arranged for the convenience of a layman.

A more valid objection is expense. Practically every large library in the United States has long since been saddled with some form of D.C. or L.C. shelving. To change now—even to a perfect system of classification—must involve great expenditure of money and time. Moreover, in a functional classification determined by experiment, revision would have to be continuous as new needs develop and old needs disappear. But classification exists only to serve; any system of classification which does not serve the reader is itself a tremendous expense for which little is received in return.

Finally, the librarian may contend that the scholar proposes to enrich the class of books in which he is interested at the expense of other classes in which other people are interested. It is, however, the fundamental principle of functional classification that classes are built up or weakened only as experiment shows reader interest in those classes is strong or weak respectively. No two libraries can use exactly—or even nearly—the same system. It is well known that one school, for instance, specializes in the humanities, another in science; one in arts, another in social sciences. And within each major group there are weak and strong classes. Every librarian will have to build his own scheme about the major interests of his patrons. Cer-

tainly he will do well to invite and carefully consider the scholar's suggestions.

Functional shelving, then, is the only classification with which the scholar will be content. How secure it?

Special Reading Room

The simplest expedient is, of course, the special reading room. The classics reading room of the University of Illinois is an excellent illustration. Into one room have been gathered nearly all books and periodicals relating to classical civilization. The shelf arrangement follows D.C. in general with the notable exception that the literature classification has been discarded. All Latin authors are classed straight 871, all Greek authors, 881. Thus, the authors of each literature form one large alphabetical group, as is the case with L.C.'s treatment of the classical literatures. Philosophy, church fathers, economics, the languages, the arts, the literatures, antiquities, history—the order of things is readily learned and the numbers which bring it about may be readily forgotten. The card catalog has been shoved into its proper subordination, for even first-year graduate students after a short time begin confidently to ignore it and to "feel their way around." In all this the classifier notes only one disquieting fact: the assembling of books is achieved, not by classification, but in spite of classification. The special reading room is a classification scheme's final confession of failure.

Something might be gained in D.C. by a further application of the theory behind the Illinois revision of the classical literature groups. Confining the literatures to two numbers makes eighteen numbers

(Continued on page 341)

Review Article

Cooperation^N

IT MAY WELL be that in any future history of American librarianship the decade of the 1930's will receive a very considerable amount of attention. Should this cautious prognostication prove correct, the underscoring and emphasis given to those ten years will probably be the result of the certainty—which can today be guessed only—that they mark the beginning of the culmination of one of the most important of all library developments. The "development" is cooperation and its "culmination"—at least to the present—is represented by library consolidations.

Concerning cooperation we have had much talk, dating back to the very beginnings of the national Association. And with that talk there has come a good deal of solid accomplishment which has made libraries more efficient, enlarged their resources and services, and saved them money. Interlibrary loan, cooperative cataloging and indexing, including union lists and union catalogs, cooperative agreements with respect to fields of specialization, and cooperative purchasing, binding, and storage are but partial witness to the progress we have made in not much more than half a century. Useful and socially significant though these activities are, however, they can never fully meet the basic and crucial problem of assuring adequate research resources for every major area in the country. The problem can be solved—for most regions at least—only by a *maximum* of cooperation, that is, by institutional pooling of financial, book, and other resources; in short, by some form

of consolidation or merger. And the first example of this type of ultimate, formal, contractual cooperation among college and university libraries took place in 1931. There were twelve such consolidations from 1931 to 1940.

These two facts, with their interest for the past and their implications for the future, are among the many offered by Mildred Hawksworth Lowell in the first full-length study of college and university library consolidations.¹

Mrs. Lowell begins her survey by suggesting the factors, of which she notes six, which have apparently been responsible for the recent "new cooperative spirit"—*e.g.*, "the increasing magnitude of the world of print" and "the destruction of scholarly libraries in China and Europe." She outlines briefly, with examples, the more usual forms of library cooperation, including "specialization agreements." Although this first chapter is simply by way of introduction to the author's main subject, one reader would like very much to have found a fairly comprehensive listing at least for this particular topic. Such a listing would have to include the agreement between the libraries of the universities of Minnesota and Michigan and the John Crerar and Newberry libraries with respect to the collection of the publications of European local academies. How many agreements of this general nature are there, how effectively have they worked out, and what have been the results?

¹ Lowell, Mildred Hawksworth. *College and University Library Consolidations*. Eugene, Oregon: State System of Higher Education, 1942. 136p.

Examples of Consolidation

In the second chapter, comprising over one-third of her work, Mrs. Lowell considers and evaluates in detail the origin and development of eleven of the twelve existing examples of consolidation—a word, incidentally, which as there used does not in the least necessarily imply loss of individual identity or autonomy on the part of any consolidator. These eleven are divided into three types: (1) Formal agreements between wholly independent libraries (*e.g.*, the University of North Carolina and Duke University libraries); (2) Contractual arrangements between two or more libraries (*e.g.*, Fisk University Library and Meharry Medical College Library); and (3) The actual merging of two or more libraries (*e.g.*, Atlanta University Library).

The last chapter of the volume is devoted to the only instance—Oregon—of the reorganization of state institutions of higher education into one system, with unification of their libraries. In some ways this chapter is the most interesting and significant of all, not simply because of the author's personal acquaintance with the topic and the full detail with which she writes, but more especially because the experiment in Oregon is unique and of great scope. What has been accomplished there should effectively and forever silence those critics who maintain that distance between and the vested interests and different natures of institutions prevent satisfactory consolidations. The Easterner, particularly, needs to be reminded that the six coordinated Oregon institutions are located in a state whose area is greater than all of New England and not much less than that of all the Middle Atlantic states. These institutions have efficiently

worked out central administration, book-keeping, order, binding, periodical, and other procedures, with resultant savings of thousands of dollars annually and, more important, greatly increased efficiency and resources.

Southern Institutions

Another volume has recently appeared which also describes, but from a different point of view, some examples of library consolidation—and which also, unfortunately, contains no index.² As stated in the title, the papers edited by Mr. Kuhlman are limited to Southern institutions and even within this limitation the picture drawn is only a partial one, several examples in the area being ignored. Nonetheless, the collection supplements Mrs. Lowell's survey in a useful fashion in that a number of the papers (*e.g.*, those on the development of university centers in Georgia, New Orleans, North Carolina, and Nashville and two on "The Joint Library" specifically), presented by non-librarians, suggest the viewpoints of other administrative officers and consider the over-all institutional implications of higher education consolidation. (At Vanderbilt and George Peabody, for instance, the faculties agreed to the elimination of 280 quarter hours of work which appeared to represent "unnecessary duplication;" obviously, each institution was able to handle better what remained.) It is interesting to note, however, that the question of library resources, cooperation, and so on is given a prominent—even a dominant—position in these discussions, too.

In addition to the chapters just noted

² Kuhlman, A. F., ed. *The Development of University Centers in the South*. . . . Nashville, Peabody Press and Vanderbilt University Press, 1942. 128p.

the volume contains papers on "The Library's Contribution to Scholarship" (W. W. Bishop), "The Program of the Joint University Libraries" (Kuhlman), "The Significance of the Joint University Libraries" (L. R. Wilson), "Teaching with Books" (Harvie Branscomb), and four, under the general heading "Further Implications. . . ." by Commander James G. Stahlman, C. H. Brown, Robert M. Lester, and Albert Russell Munn.

Motives Underlying Cooperative Ventures

Several conclusions are drawn in the two volumes—explicitly in Mrs. Lowell's, implicitly in the other. The motives underlying these cooperative ventures seem definite and fairly universal; they are also, perhaps, quite obvious, being concerned with the provision of better service at less cost, the building of more adequate resources for a given area, the fuller serving of research needs, and the improvement of educational effectiveness. The evidence is that these goals have, for the most part, been achieved or are being achieved to a remarkable degree. Mrs. Lowell shows, for example, that with respect to book stock, number of current periodicals, and financial support, the consolidations compare very favorably with the institutions included in the American Library Association annual statistical tabulations. Throughout the Kuhlman volume we are reminded, however, that the library aspect is sometimes only one, though often the chief, element in these consolidations which, through the elimination of duplication, the concentration of facilities, and the coordination of faculties, are vastly enriching teaching and research in a manner having almost unlimited educational implications.

It is very clear that most of these developments could not have taken place, or could not have done so to the extent that they have, had it not been for generous foundation aid, notably from the Carnegie Corporation, the General Education Board, and the Rosenwald Fund. Only two of the twelve have received no foundation aid and neither of these is in the South. Does this fact and the fact that nine of the twelve are located in the South bear any relation to the special interest in that region on the part of the foundations? Undoubtedly so; undoubtedly, too, the southern region has been in greater need than any other part of the country of assistance and stimulus along the lines of research and library resources. Yet realization of the incalculable benefits which will certainly accrue to the whole southern area cannot help but make one wonder about—and hope for—other parts of the country. Illinois with its hundred institutions of higher education, Iowa with its sixty-four, Massachusetts with its sixty-nine, New York with its hundred and four, Pennsylvania with its hundred and one, Wisconsin with its thirty-six—just to pick a few states at random—or the great metropolitan areas, such as Philadelphia, with its hundred fifty odd libraries, what about all these? For the most part all the libraries in these areas go their own sweet ways, on the one hand buying, cataloging, and shelving between them, ten or twenty or thirty copies of specialized reference sets and expensive journals, on the other combining to ignore—even in such a wealthy and resource-rich area as Philadelphia—literally dozens of fields of knowledge. Which of the two evils is the worse it is hard to say, but we know that real cooperation and coordination can very

largely eliminate both. We know, because it has been done. But it takes courage, determination, realization of need, and vast patience to overcome the problems and obstacles which lie on the road to success. Chief among them would seem to be the inability of administrators to see the advantages of cooperation and their unwillingness to enter into agreements, the fear of librarians that they will lose prestige

or authority, and the difficulty of making legal and financial arrangements.

The two volumes which have served as pegs upon which to hang these notes should be required reading for everyone interested in higher education. Their contents are, if the writer is any prophet, signposts of the future.—*J. Periam Danton, librarian, Sullivan Memorial Library, Temple University, Philadelphia.*

Classification and the Scholar

(Continued from page 337)

available in the emptied 870's and 880's, possibly enough to take care of all phases of classical study. By such a scheme classification, unaided, might bring together books according to their use. Similar revisions might be worked out in various other classes, both in D.C. and in L.C. Of course such a system of revision might soon cost more than to devise and install an entire new scheme of classification.

Certainly, reshelving without a revised classification can never succeed. "Objections to the order of the D.C. tables,"

Dorcas Fellows argued, "can be largely and easily overcome by adjustments in shelving, *e.g.*, English philology (420) may be shelved next to English literature (820), travel in Italy (914.5) next to Italian history (945), etc."⁶ The same "solution" could, of course, be worked out in L.C. But if classification does not indicate where a book may be found and if the stacks are to be a maze of jumbled letters and figures penetrable only to the initiated—why classify?

⁶ Fellows, Dorcas. "Library of Congress Classification vs. Decimal Classification." *Library Journal* 50:292, Apr. 1, 1925.

East

Archibald Mac-
Leish, Librarian of
Congress, has estab-

lished a Librarian's Council made up of twenty-four of the nation's distinguished historians, writers, educators, book collectors, and librarians. The council will study and make recommendations about such matters as the development and improvement of the library's collections and services, the initiation and control of important bibliographical studies, and other projects in the field of library service. In making appointments to the council, Mac-Leish called attention to the ever-increasing importance of the Library of Congress in the life of the nation and said this group will be asked to cooperate in making the services rendered by the library as effective and as vital as possible.

The Library of Congress has received from Indo-China a very rare Buddhist manuscript, the only one of its kind known to be in this country. The manuscript has never been edited or published and its preservation might become of far-reaching consequence should the four or five other existing copies be destroyed during the war. While it is only about 250 years old, the text is 1000 years older.

The Library of Congress has been given the master file of 14,893,001 title slips organized by the American Imprints Inventory of the Historical Records Survey. This represents approximately one million titles printed in the United States prior to 1877, in all states except Arizona, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Utah, Wyoming, and the Dakotas, in which the date 1891 was used. Eventually these slips will be incorporated in the Union Catalog of the Library of Congress.

Dorothy Lawton, music librarian, New

News from

York Public Library, has announced the completion of a dance index on cards. It is housed in the Music Library, 121 E. 58th St., New York City. The compilation was a project of the Work Projects Administration and was supervised by J. Parker Sondheim, library consultant for that agency. The index is based upon the holdings of thirteen libraries in the metropolitan area; books, periodicals, reports, and minutes, in more than a dozen languages have been analyzed and references typed on three by five cards. Although the index is concerned primarily with the dance (as an art), the anthropological, ethnological, and religious aspects are emphasized. Its main objective is to provide a reference tool whereby material in all types of publications—especially that in obscure and little-used ones—may be brought together for students interested in the various aspects of the dance.

A "Handbook of Federal World War Agencies, 1914-20," which will contain information about the organization, activities, and records of about thirty-five hundred units of the government that participated in defense, wartime, or post-war activities, is being compiled by the National Archives. A "List of Federal World War Agencies, 1914-20," has already been compiled as a preliminary step in this undertaking and copies of it may be obtained from the Division of Information and Publication of the National Archives.

South

The Robert E.
Lee Archives has
been established as

the Field

a division of the New Cyrus Hall McCormick Library of Washington and Lee University. It is proposed to make this division a national repository of source material about Lee. This institution, to which Lee gave the last five years of his life, already owns a considerable collection of manuscripts concerning him, as well as many books, pamphlets, and pictures. Professor Allen W. Moger, of the faculty, has been made Lee archivist, and a national advisory committee of prominent scholars and public men is being formed.

The University of
Middle West Nebraska Library,
Stephen A. McCarthy, director, has received by gift the architectural library of the late Thomas R. Kimball, a prominent Omaha architect. The collection contains more than one thousand volumes which cover everything of importance published in this field from 1890 to 1930. Many of the volumes are rare and valuable.

Knox College, Jerrold Orne, librarian, conducted a symposium on "Planning for the Future of the College Library" on May 8 and 9. On the program as speakers were students, professors, librarians, and alumni.

The new \$50,000 Carthage College Library, Carthage, Illinois, was dedicated on May 24. Emily C. Pennock is librarian.

The Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago will offer a three-year program leading to the degree of Bachelor of Library Science, beginning in October 1943. The new plan is made

possible by a grant of \$75,000 from the Carnegie Corporation of New York.

The State Historical Society of Missouri, Columbia, has acquired the J. Christian Bay collection of Western Americana. This acquisition marks the passing from private to public hands of one of the most outstanding collections of its kind. In coverage and completeness the collection of 2,902 items ranks among the very unusual and takes added value from its collector, J. Christian Bay, librarian of the John Crerar Library. For nearly half a century Dr. Bay devoted his leisure to obtaining perfect copies of selected items fundamental in the history and literature of the west, especially Kentucky and the prairie states of the upper Middle West.

The University of Indiana Library, Robert A. Miller, director, has acquired the Oakleaf Lincoln collection of approximately eight thousand volumes, supplemented by photographs, etchings, busts, plaques, letters, and medals. The collection was assembled by Judge Joseph B. Oakleaf of Moline, Illinois, over a period of forty-three years and is regarded as one of America's five outstanding Lincoln libraries.

The Mary Reed
West Library of the University of Denver,
Joe Hare, librarian, has negative microfilm copies of the principal European library economy periodicals and will permit librarians to make positive copies on demand.

The Seattle Public Library, John S. Richards, librarian, has received a gift of \$1500 from the Boeing Aircraft Company for the purchase in 1942 of technical books and journals on aeronautics. This augments earlier gifts which have made possible an aeronautics collection of some five

thousand volumes in the technology department of the library.

Colorado libraries, encouraged by the State Committee on Public Education and Information, are making a significant contribution to the civilian morale program of the state by supplying materials to communities studying the problems war has imposed. Ralph E. Ellsworth, librarian of the University of Colorado, represents the library interests on the committee. Robert A. Luke, who has charge of the state-wide W.P.A. library project, has been working directly with the libraries to assist them in planning programs.

The librarians of colleges and universities in Colorado are making a study of the duplication of curriculums in Colorado colleges and the implications of this duplication for libraries. This study has already led to a meeting of the presidents, deans, and librarians of all the institutions for higher learning in the state, at which the problems of duplication of curricula and library materials were discussed. A significant result of the meeting was that the presidents and deans now realize that the development of library facilities is not a problem for the librarian alone, but one which calls for the understanding and co-operation of their offices as well.

A committee of Colorado librarians is working on the problem of coordinating and possibly combining the cataloging and other technical operations of the college libraries of the state. This project has been spurred on by the findings of Weldon Kees, director of the Denver Bibliographical Center, who disclosed that 60 per cent of the books bought by one college library in the state are likewise purchased by all of the others.

Personnel

William M. Randall, of the Graduate Library School faculty, has been granted leave by the University of Chicago to enter service as a major in the Army Air Force. Leon Carnovsky has been named to succeed him as managing editor of the *Library Quarterly*.

John S. Richards, until recently associate librarian, University of Washington, has been appointed librarian of the Seattle Public Library, to succeed Judson T. Jennings, who retired on June 1, 1942, after thirty-five years as librarian.

Rodolfo O. Rivera, formerly executive assistant to the A.L.A. Committee on Library Cooperation with Latin America, has been made director of the newly-established United States library, at Managua, Nicaragua. This new library will be similar to the Benjamin Franklin Library of Mexico City, though smaller, and will make available a representative collection of United States books and provide a center for other cultural activities.

M. H. Douglas, librarian of the University of Oregon Library since 1908, retired to the status of librarian emeritus, August 1, 1942. He was succeeded by Willis C. Warren, who was appointed acting librarian.

Fellowships in the Graduate Library School for 1942-43 have been awarded by the University of Chicago to Andrew J. Eaton, Horace R. Archer, and Frank A. Lundy. Research assistantships have been given to Raynard Swank and Hester Hoffman, and scholarships to A. Katherine Davis and Robert R. Douglass.

BENJAMIN E. POWELL

Association of Special and Reference Librarians

Session Office in 1933

Academatic Libraries

Chairman: Louis Helen, Connecticut College Library, Corvallis

Secretary: Emily L. Day, Bureau of Educational Research, Library of Congress, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

Director: James Stewart Brown, Bureau of Educational Library, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

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Chairman: Elsie Mae Welch, Illinois State Normal University Library, Normal

Secretary: Bessie T. Jordan, Ball State Teachers College Library, Muncie, Ind.

Director: Mary H. Cox, Eastern Kentucky Teachers College Library, Richmond

University Libraries

Chairman: John H. Bess, Duke University Library, Durham, N.C.

Secretary: Harry Clemens, Alderman Library, University of Virginia, Charlottesville

Director: Charles E. Rife, University of North Carolina Library, Chapel Hill

Index

Prepared by DENA J. POLACHECK

ABBREVIATIONS

A.C.R.L. Association of College
and Reference Libraries
Admin. Administration
A.L.A. American Library Associa-
tion
Am. American
Assn. (s) Association (s)
Bk. (s) Book (s)
Bldg. (s) Building (s)
Cat. Catalog

Chm. Chairman
Class. Classification
Coll. (s) College (s)
Com. Committee
Comp. (s) Compiler (s)
Dups. Duplicates
Ed. Editor
Educ. Education
Hist. History
Jr. Junior

L. (s) Library (ies)
Ln. (s) Librarian (s)
Lnshp. Librarianship
Ref. Reference
Rev. Reviewed
Rpt. Report
Sch. (s) School (s)
Univ. (s) University (ies)
U.S. United States
Vs. Versus

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